

# The Social Studies

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*Continuing The Historical Outlook*

November, 1941

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# The Social Studies

*Continuing The Historical Outlook*

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VOLUME XXXII, NUMBER 7

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## Tomorrow Is in the Making

GLADYS A. RISDEN

*Ohio University, Athens, Ohio*

World War II will end. We have faith that its end will be a triumph for democracy. If it is, what then? When today's soldiers were babies, World War I had made the world "safe for democracy." Will today's babies have to fight a World War III to make the world again "safe for democracy?"

They won't if we hasten to learn how to justify the faith of our founding fathers in the public schools. Said these wise men: "We can draw up plans for a democratic government, but we cannot make the people live democratically." The present war has merely opened the way for a beginning. The real American revolution can only be in the minds of the people. We must have schools which will inaugurate the real changes for a democratic way of life in America.

The men around the peace table after World War II can formulate plans for a democratically-ordered world, but they cannot make the people of the world live democratically. The democratic way of life must be learned in today's schools by today's children—the makers of tomorrow. As these children learn to live today so will live the world society of tomorrow.

There is nothing novel about the realization of the need for educating our children for democratic living. How can this be achieved? That is the question for reflection today. Let us take a look at the attitudes and abilities incorporated in democratic living in a world democracy. Such a glance offers some valuable clues.

### A POSITIVE CAUSE

The enemies of democracy are a formidable force because they are in the grip of a great cause. We are weakly struggling out of ineffectualness for the simple reason that we have the habit of taking democracy for granted, as our right rather than as our responsibility. Moreover, today's youth have grown up in an era of debunking and pessimism. Until very recently the "correct" response to the idea of a *cause* has been: "Oh yeah?"

If we give today's children an overdose of stimulation for emoting on democracy, we will, at the best, have a generation of makers who will have the will but not the ability to live democratically. At the worst, we will have a reaction against democracy—another period of cynicism and debunking.

It behooves us, therefore, to search for sounder ways for guiding today's children to take up the cause of democracy. When we examine our own faith in democracy do we not find it resting on a firm conviction in the improbability of human nature and of the democratic way as the most effective means for facilitating that improvement? When we examine the motives impelling struggle and sacrifice down through the ages do we not find the same impelling conviction? Then, would it not seem practical and promising to help today's children to learn the facts that will convince them that human nature is improvable? Let them follow the long, long, course of mankind's climb toward socialization and see how complex and difficult have been the forces he has

been slowly mastering. Let them watch the growth of little children from egocentricity toward socialization and gain an appreciation of the child's potentiality for progress that outweighs their depreciation of the long way he has yet to go. Let them study the experiments of biologists in selecting from the many potentialities of a given organism those which are to be developed and the development of these through control of the environment.

Let them see the role that a narrow margin of resources has played in developing mankind's potentialities for unwholesome competition while leaving latent potentialities for democratic group living. Let them see the promise for widening margins of resources being developed in today's laboratories that they may understand the possibilities for improving human nature through encouraging inventive genius to the end of widening mankind's margin of safety. Let them reflect upon such parallelisms as the upsurge of enterprise among pestilence ridden, debilitated sixteenth century Europeans and the addition to their diets of new vitamin-rich foods from distant lands. In short, let's give the child facts, talk with him about them and put our faith in his intelligence.

#### A SPIRIT OF HUMILITY

Said a resentful young brother: "Aw, I get sick of being bossed around all the time by that big brother of mine. He just feels too big for his pants." Said a South American student in one of our colleges: "My people resent the attitude of you of the United States. You look down your noses at us. We don't like to be looked down at." Such is the way of humans. The one who feels "too big for his pants" or "looks down at" has small chance for effective leadership. Hence since it seems probable that the United States must assume leadership for the democratization of tomorrow's world, does it not behoove us to send the makers of tomorrow out of the schools of today feeling a spirit of humility that will prevent the aforementioned attitudes?

How? Not by belaboring the fact that we must not feel "too big for our pants" or must not disdain other people, but by taking these children to the bins in our great granaries of knowledge, which will offer them facts that will humble them. For example, let us help them study the natural advantages we have had for developing the democratic way of life in the United States—our wide margin of resources, our isolation until recent years, our rigorously selected population. Let us help them make a comparative study of these conditions and the conditions in totalitarian countries. Let us help them to see the parallelism that exists between land-locked countries and the perpetuation of feudalistic habits of thinking on the one hand, and ocean-facing countries and the liberalizing of these habits of thinking, on the other hand.

Let us help them to see the ever-changing leadership through the long evolution of civilization, and to examine the circumstances that made each people a leader for a time. Let us give them the opportunity to learn these things and trust their intelligence to find humility in their own evolving concepts of the progress of democracy as something bigger than America's leadership of the moment.

#### THE WILL TO UNDERSTAND

Said one small boy: "Mother, you are not a little boy, so you can't know what a little boy wants." Said a mother to another small boy: "Jimmy, if you just knew how Mother hates that noise." Replied the small boy in a weary, hopeless tone: "Mother, if you just knew how Jimmy *loves* that noise." Said a South American to one of our newspaper correspondents: "If your people could only understand that we *like* our way of life and are *proud* of our culture and not insist upon our changing to your way of life and aping your culture, we could be friendlier neighbors."

Whence comes such a will to understand what our neighbors want and like? In our libraries are the words of great philosophers of all peoples and all ages—men qualified to give expert interpretation of the strivings of their people. Let us first go to these ourselves, since most of us have meager acquaintance with any way of life but our own. For example, let us read such books as *The Importance of Living*, by Lin Yutang, with a mind open for values which we have not learned to see. When we shall have learned to see that our wants cover only a small range of the potential wants of mankind, that they are our wants because of the accident of environment, that they may not be as wise a choice for other people in a different environment, then let us help the child to understand in so far as he is mature enough to understand.

For example, Reba has come back from a trip through an Indian reservation. "They lived in the awfulest shacks," she says with small nose tilted upward. That's the time for teacher to say: "I wonder why they live in shacks," and to begin a study of homes that will open these children's eyes to the fact that shelter serves different needs for different peoples. To the primitive it is just what its name implies—protection from climate or enemies, or both. To us shelter is this and a home. Does this mean that the Indians have an inferior home-life because it is lived in such large part out-of-doors? No. Does the fact that their huts are not beautiful mean that they have inferior appreciation of beauty? Again, no.

#### WILLINGNESS TO SACRIFICE

Today we are girding ourselves to sacrifice to win the war. In our thoughts, however, the end of the



war will write a period to our sacrifices. May it not be that sacrifices will be necessary after the war to maintain the peace that war has won? In America the standard of living for all classes has been steadily rising. There is a wide range in standards to be sure, but one class has not pushed another down in order to climb higher itself. What we have learned to do within our own country we must now do throughout the world if we would maintain a lasting peace. This is not going to be easy to achieve among nations which have a narrow margin of resources. Inventive genius will be needed to widen that margin of resources. Perhaps planning for redistribution of production of raw materials will be needed. Such will take time and during that time some temporary sacrifices may be necessary on our part to make possible an achievement of economic equilibrium that will promote friendly relations among the nations of the world.

The children of today who will decide tomorrow whether the sacrifices for such a cause will be made, should not be learning remedies for the economic imbalances in the world. No one today knows what those remedies of tomorrow should be. If anyone did, the immature minds of our children and youth are not safe repositories for them. They should, however, be delving into history, to find how economic derangements of the past have contributed to the wars of the past, and into geography to find the extent and complexities of such imbalances today. They should be getting the import of our present sacrifices, and learning to look ahead to see an end for which to sacrifice. In literature, also, they will have the opportunity to live vicariously the sacrifices of others and so to experience the thrill that sacrifice can bring.

#### THE DESIRE TO THINK STRAIGHT

Two twelve-year-old girls were arguing hotly. Said an adult: "The facts that would settle your argument can be found in ten minutes." Said the girls: "Why, we don't want it settled. We like the fun of arguing."

This is a natural reaction of twelve-year-olds. The pity of it is that so many fifty-year-olds retain this love for wasteful, fruitless argument. To hang to one's point as a bulldog hangs to a hobo's clothing, to twist words in order to confuse one's opponent, and to do anything to make one's own opinion prevail, are common human failings. Have you heard of any such twelve-year-old tactics in the United States Senate?

Who is right? Who is wrong? A world that could change from preoccupation with "rightness" and "wrongness" of opinions to an honest attempt to arrive at conclusions in the light of all the data and to be ever seeking new data to use in a never-ending straightening of thinking would have a better chance

for solving problems through intelligent arbitration, instead of through war.

So let's discourage arguments in our classrooms with: "Well let's take a look at the facts. John, tell us upon what facts you have based your opinions. . . . Bob, tell us what facts you know. . . . Now where can we find facts which you may not know?" And so the children finally come to a conclusion that they recognize as tentative—to be modified further when more facts are available. Let us help them to become aware of elementary fallacies in logic. In general let us help them to discover that straight thinking is more fun than fruitless argument.

#### CONCLUSION

We, the makers of today, won our war to make the world safe for democracy. There we stopped. So we are now engaged in another war to make the world safe for democracy. Are we going to have this effort, too, wasted because we delude ourselves with the belief that war can democratize the world? This question will be answered in the schools of today which are developing the makers of tomorrow.

How can the schools of today prepare the makers of tomorrow for their responsibility of democratizing the world? By memorizing textbook facts to use in their adulthood in attacking the world's socio-economic problems? We have only to look about us today to see how few thus educated *use* these facts now in order to understand and act wisely on the issues of the day. Shall we, then treat facts as non-essentials and point our efforts to guidance of everyday living to the end that democratic attitudes and abilities be developed? This, too, is inadequate because it is possible for one to live democratically within his immediate group, yet be too ignorant to promote the democratic way of life in his larger world-group. Shall we think up all the answers and teach them to the child? By no means. We don't know enough today to formulate the answers to tomorrow's problems. Moreover the child is too immature to assimilate projected solutions to tomorrow's problems.

In the opinion of the writer it is all of these together—none of them alone—that will best prepare the makers of tomorrow to carry forward the revolution for world democracy. Live democratically today by all means. But as rapidly as the child matures to readiness for understanding, take him into the world's storehouse of knowledge for the facts that will help him to generalize slowly on these everyday experiences of his. He learns that the child who feels "too big for his pants" is unpopular on the playground. Lead on from there toward awareness of what a handicap such an attitude will be in tomorrow's reconstruction of the world. Opinions? Emphasize not the opinions, but the straightness of the thinking that is back of the opinion.

To recapitulate: Help the child in his everyday doings to feel the grip of the democratic *Cause*, to undertake leadership with safe and sane humility and sincerity, to seek to understand rather than to judge other peoples, to experience the thrill of sacrifice for a cause, and to accept responsibility for arriving at his own conclusions on the basis of *all* available

facts. But don't stop here as many progressive schools do. Help him to garner and *use* the facts that will strengthen and toughen his determination to grow in knowledge of ways and means for carrying forward the world revolution for democracy. With this equipment the makers of tomorrow may so live that World War III will never be.

## Multiple Texts Multiply Textbook Problems

HARRY A. BECKER

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Textbooks hold a deservedly important place in modern education. They are meeting the need for well planned, basic instructional material of moderate cost. For years, however, educators have been aware that textbooks are often seriously misused.

Many teachers have required "the most deliberate and minute dissection" of the text which is often the only book or material of instruction used. Assignments are made in terms of pages of the text, beginning with page one and continuing to the last page. Learning consists of the uninteresting and onerous task of committing a large part of the textbook to memory. The American Youth Commission in its recent publication, *What the High Schools Ought to Teach*, declares that such use of the text retards the development of the ability to read rapidly, an ability which is needed in life. In the words of the Commission: "Pupils begin to think that it requires three to six months to read through a book."

One of the reactions against slavish dependence upon a single textbook has been the multiple textbook plan. Under that plan no one textbook is adopted. Instead copies of a number of the leading textbooks in the subject are purchased. The total number of copies purchased is usually not more and is often less than the number of books which would be bought if each pupil were supplied with a textbook. Often the books are held as classroom sets and most of the preparation is done in class, though the books may usually be borrowed for overnight use. Sometimes the books are assigned to individual pupils who are expected to exchange with each other from time to time so that each pupil has a chance to read the accounts given in several different textbooks. The plan is sometimes called the parallel textbook plan.

The enthusiastic advocates of the multiple text plan have made many claims for it. The following are among those often put forth:

1. It is a "modern" and "progressive" plan of providing instructional material.
2. It breaks down slavish dependence on a single textbook.
3. Students do not get the "notion" that all the information on a subject is within the covers of their single textbook.
4. Students obtain different points of view.
5. Studying more than one book and studying a topic from several points of view increase student interest.
6. Comparing information from two or more textbooks develops critical ability.
7. As a result of getting different points of view, more interesting reading, and the development of critical ability, students learn and understand better.

The writer, who has taught by this plan as well as thought about it, is of the opinion that it is not a "best buy" or even an "also acceptable" solution to the problem of the misuse of the textbook. He is aware that those things which are called "modern" and "progressive" may be criticized only at the risk of being called "old fashioned" and "out of date." Because he is prepared to take that risk, let us consider the claims which have been made for the multiple text plan.

Let us consider first the claim that the plan is "modern" and "progressive." The writer does not believe that these qualities always guarantee merit. It is worth pointing out, however, that the plan is not of recent origin. In the second quarter of the

nineteenth century, many American schools were using a kind of multiple text system. Lack of funds made it impossible to adopt textbooks. Neither the parents of the pupils nor the school committees could spend the money to supply pupils of similar attainments with the same books. Each pupil used whatever book he could obtain. Of course, it was not a plan adopted by choice, and it was replaced by the common textbook plan as soon as that was financially possible.

The claim that the multiple textbook plan breaks down complete dependence on a single textbook must be granted. But it is only fair to ask: "With what is that slavish dependence replaced?" Each text is a man made, subjective organization of material in a certain area. Each author must make a selection of the topics, facts, and details he will include. The extent to which the content of multiple texts will be similar varies with the subject. In American history there is a considerable amount of agreement. On the other hand, in world history and in problems of democracy there is often little agreement. The teacher using multiple texts cannot follow the plans of organization of all of the books, but must make his own. This is often a hastily composed patchwork.

I am not advocating entire dependence on a single textbook. I do, however, recommend intelligent dependence on a single text which is recognized for its skillful organization, unless the teacher is unusually well qualified and has plenty of time to make his own organization. It is likely that such a teacher will soon be publishing his own textbook. Sometimes, of course, a group of teachers working as a committee can cooperatively develop this material for their school.

The claim must be granted, also, that students who have studied under the multiple text plan do not get the "notion" that their "books" have all the information on the subject. Of course, several books are used, but they are all textbooks. The writer will mention another plan later which seems to be a more desirable way of accomplishing the same objective.

The claim that students obtain different points of view by using multiple texts is very interesting. The writer is of the opinion that minor details at variance with each other will be found often in the well known textbooks on a subject. In American history, for example, there may be some discrepancy in such points as the date of the annexation of Midway Island. There is little difference, however, in the social philosophy and points of view shown in the well known texts. After all, the standard publishers are businessmen, not crusaders. They know what the controlling elements want in a textbook and they try to give it to them for the simple reason that they want the books they publish to sell. Students will not get significantly different points of view merely

by studying multiple texts.

Does the use of multiple texts increase student interest? Textbooks are usually not interesting reading. This is what the American Youth Commission said in *What the High Schools Ought to Teach*:

One important reason why pupils are unable to read well is that much of the material which is presented in textbooks is altogether inappropriate for the cultivation of reading habits. When the history of the United States, for example, is condensed into a book of 500 to 600 pages, it has to be compressed to such an extent that the anecdotes which would make it a lively, interesting subject are almost, if not entirely, left out. Every sentence has to carry an idea requiring minute attention. The book is a compact body of factual statements which does not invite or permit fluent reading. Every sentence must be studied analytically. In mastering the contents of the ordinary textbook in history, the pupil cultivates habits of intellectual procedure which may prevent him throughout his life from undertaking the type of reading which is appropriate for most of the materials which he will encounter in books and magazines.

Reading two or three textbooks is no more interesting than reading one. After reading an introductory survey of a topic in one good textbook, the writer recommends that the student devote what additional time he may have for reading to fuller treatments of the topic in general historical works or monographs, reading of related historical fiction or biographies, or reading of source materials.

I agree that students who seek and discover minor discrepancies in the accounts given in several textbooks are developing critical ability. It is a more interesting and valuable use of critical ability, however, to check the account in a textbook against a monograph on the topic, and, wherever possible, against source material.

Moreover, if much of the class time is devoted to preparation and study as is often done under the multiple text plan, far less class time is available for discussions, class programs, teacher explanations, and reteaching than if most of the preparation is done out of class. Such classes cannot accomplish as much as those which devote most of the periods to various class activities and where most of the preparation is done out of class.

Teachers using multiple texts often attempt to meet this problem by permitting the texts to be borrowed for overnight use. Those who have done this will agree that checking books out each afternoon and in each morning is more difficult than it would seem because teachers must take care of many other things at these times. Not only are books lost in the



process, but it is difficult to fix the responsibility for damage to books. Often, too, books are not available for use in class the next day because the borrowers are absent or because they left the books at home.

From what has gone before, the reader is probably already aware of the plan of organization of instructional material favored by the writer. He strongly

favors using a good textbook as a springboard from which to launch the study of the subject. Areas and topics introduced in the text should be followed up as much as possible in the other, usually more interesting, kinds of historical literature already mentioned. Collections of such materials and their circulation can best be done by the school library.

## When I Teach Civics Again

KERMIT EBY

*Executive Secretary, Chicago Teachers Union, Chicago*

The experience was mine, like that of many others, to have been compelled to memorize the bones of the human body, and almost immediately to forget them. After all, memorizing the bones of the body from toe to skull does not contribute a great deal to the understanding of the human organisms—and very much less to the understanding of human nature.

Much of the civics taught me and much passed on by me to more or less willing learners was patterned after the bone-memorizing drill: "Boys and girls, pay attention now! The President of the United States serves for four years; may be re-elected for four years, or more. There are ninety-six senators, four hundred thirty-five representatives. The President's Cabinet consists of ten members. There are eight members of the Supreme Court, plus the Chief Justice. A bill becomes law by the following process. . . . There will be an examination next Friday."

Incidentally, this type of civics teaching is about as meaningless as memorizing the bones of the body, and, if my experience teaches me anything, completely ineffective as a stimulus to active and creative citizenship. Recognizing that this is a rather dogmatic assertion, it now is my responsibility to state the points I would emphasize if I were teaching again. In so doing, I will draw heavily on my experience outside of the classroom as a more or less active participant in Chicago's political and civic life.

My Chicago experiences have impressed me with the fact that the average American citizen is interested in matters affecting our democracy in direct proportion to his ability to do something about it. National elections and complicated issues excite Mr. John Q. Citizen much more than local issues. The collapse of democracy in Europe is on everybody's lips, and few indeed are concerned about the collapse of democracy in Chicago. As we guard against the fifth columnist, real or imagined, we ignore inefficiency and dishonesty in the operation of local government. The average citizen becomes "tired"; corruption is accepted

as inevitable; and many, like the citizens of Lincoln Steffens' Philadelphia, are proud of it. After all, it is something to live in the most corrupt city in the world! Consequently, when the crisis comes, as it did in France, too few people have enough faith in their government and the institutions of democracy to fight for them.

Practically, then, as a teacher, I would emphasize local problems: garbage collections and budgets; civil service and the lack of it; health departments and education. Government as it affects our lives would be my primary emphasis. Mine would be the desire to bring to every student the understanding of the interdependence of all of us in our highly complicated life. The entire community would be my laboratory: labor relations would be studied on the scene. One visit to Flint during a strike, together with contacting striker, management, and citizen groups, did more to broaden the understanding of my Ann Arbor students than all the lectures I could have given them. Several times it was my good fortune to take high school classes to city council chambers and to state legislatures. There they saw government at work, and they developed some feeling for the processes of democracy. Frankly, it was only after I had spent several sessions attending state legislatures as a representative of organizations that I began to understand the pressure groups which had to be compromised before a balance can be struck in the form of legislation. We must, if we are to survive as a democracy, make our government work, and the foundation of our government rests on the precinct and ward organization which gets out the vote. Legislators have to be elected before they can serve us!

Recognizing how important it is to get out the vote, we teachers should participate in party politics. One good precinct captain is worth fifty resolutions, and one good alderman worth a thousand petitions. We teachers have never properly emphasized the



role of the political organization. Actually, few of us know it exists outside of references to it in the newspapers. Instead of damning political organizations, we need to become a part of them and help get out the vote ourselves. Every time we do not do so, we default on our responsibilities. As a teacher, I would tell my students to become members of the Young Democrats and Young Republicans on their eighteenth birthday, and to learn politics by passing out handbills, cleaning spittoons, and going to party caucuses, recognizing that progress is slow and if they kept only ten per cent of their youthful idealism, society will be the better for it!

So few Americans appreciate the role of the politicians; to the average American, politician and crook are synonymous. The politician is a catalyzer. He likes human beings; he is willing to compromise! Every time we condemn the politician and the party processes, we are weakening our form of government. Before a free people abrogate their prerogatives, they must be influenced to distrust their political leaders and be made willing to follow a demagogue. If I remember correctly, Hitler had to discredit the Weimer Republic and its leaders before he could seize power. Discrediting politicians is a favorite American pastime, and we who do so are forgetting that sovereignty rests in the people and the people's leaders. Therefore, as a teacher I would encourage my students to become acquainted with politicians, to understand through first hand experience how important the role of the politician is and to become politicians themselves, remembering always that we get the kind of government we deserve in a democracy and that those who govern us are representative of our values and examples of our conduct.

As a teacher I was scornful of compromise. Politicians were fixers. What we needed, I used to orate, were men who stood for truth and right. Decisions, it seemed to me in my cloistered world, were easy if one had the courage of his convictions. To this day, my reactions are colored by much of the same type of thinking, however intellectually, at least, I give assent to the fact that few decisions in organizations and politics are simple problems of moral arithmetic. The truth isn't all on one side, the evil on the other. We mortals are not gods on Mount Olympus. Instead, we are relatively enlightened human beings trying to arrive at decisions which will "promote the common welfare." Incidentally, it has never been my conviction that democracy can be strengthened materially by learning its literature when the teachers who teach the literature are often themselves dictators. More than ever, it seems to me, it is through our attitudes and the values we emphasize that others are influenced. Citizens, to be effective in a democracy, have to be prepared; and the best

way to prepare them is to train them in the examination of evidence. Controversial issues must be approached honestly from every side. After the evidence is examined, students must be encouraged to act; otherwise they disintegrate. No contemporary phenomenon impresses me more than the general acceptance on the part of many Americans that democracy has arrived, is perfect. No society is perfect. Perfection is achieved only as we strive to make this a better and more livable world. So, today more than ever, we need to restore the people's confidence in their rulers, and we need to give every one a stake in society. Homeless, hungry and unemployed men are not democracy's best defenders. If we would make our nation secure, we can do so only by making every citizen in it feel that no other form of government or organization of society can offer him more. Hitler came to power by appealing to youth, an unemployed, disillusioned and spiritless youth. Without the normal integrations of job, marriage, and community activity, they turned to Hitler! So when I teach again, my spare time will be given to teaching the adults in my community, as well as my students, that there can be no security in the midst of insecurity, that the economic and social problems of America must be faced and solved; otherwise, we will all go down together. In my teaching, formal and otherwise, I will advise against the building of more and more powerful vertical pressure groups, interested in the security of its members alone.

My four years in Chicago have convinced me that we need more horizontal organizations which embrace all strata of our society; we need cross sections of our city, including the butcher and the baker, as well as the lawyer and the teacher. Otherwise we will see one part of the community organized and competing with another. In the words of President Robert Hutchins of the University of Chicago: "Almost the last question an American is expected to ask about a proposal is whether it is just. The question is how much pressure is there behind it or how strong are the interests against it. On this basis are settled such great issues as monopoly, the organization of agriculture, the relation of labor and capital; whether bonuses should be paid veterans, and whether a tariff policy based on greed should be modified by reciprocal trade agreements."

While teaching in Ann Arbor from 1931 to 1937, I had vague intentions on the subject of broadened social responsibility, the need for all of us to work together in the community. Now I am convinced that we must do so or we will perish. This is a machine age—the machine demands regimentation for its operation. At present our economy is geared to war and our production to war machines. Until now we have lacked moral insight and the spiritual vigor

to use our machines and their output for man's upbuilding. We must do so! And here I would teach my pupils that they, with us, must live for the common welfare and that it is sometimes more difficult to live for a cause than to die for it—for death does not eliminate the problem. After this war some one must reorganize the world. Now there are no plans, no courts, no leagues. We are asked to die for moral values: freedom of religion, speech, and press and assembly; and we often deny them to achieve our ends. More than ever, as a teacher,

I would strive to have my students see that democracy stands or falls on the strength of character of its citizens. We are alone in the voting booth, and no laws are fool-proof. In the last resort, we must trust somebody. There is no substitute for character—no substitute for the man who is not for sale. Every day I see people refusing to stand for what they once believed; I see the increase of mob hysteria, and as I watch it develop, I resolve to teach more students some day that the world needs more Niemollers and fewer Hitlers—more idealists and fewer cynics.

## Revised Historical Viewpoints

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### SWEDISH IMMIGRATION

The desire to get a "better living" partly explains the great Swedish migration to America in the period, 1850-1875. Individuals were motivated, too, by crop failures, misunderstandings, injustices and quarrels. But these had occurred in all ages. The migration from Sweden, then, is to be accounted for chiefly, by the fact that people revolted against fundamental social conditions. The Swedes were non-conformists in politics, religion, and in social and economic matters.<sup>1</sup>

Popular discontent with conditions in the established state church: corruption, gambling, avarice, dishonesty and other vices among the clergy, induced a religious revival movement in Sweden in the early part of the nineteenth century. This increased after 1850 when Church and State forbade religious meetings in private homes. People migrated to escape religious persecutions and controls.

Emigration was encouraged by press attacks on America and on emigration. Shipping agents persuaded the Swedish peasants and workers that the press was controlled by the upper classes who profited by the labor of the dependent classes.

In answer to a controlled press a new type of journalism appeared belittling Swedish conditions and praising American. The new press published letters from the Swedes in America telling of their economic success. In the seventies, a Göteborg paper, *Amerika*, undoubtedly financed by emigration companies, did much to stimulate many to leave their homeland.

<sup>1</sup> George M. Stephenson, "The Background of the Beginnings of Swedish Immigration, 1850-1875," *American Historical Review*, XXXI (July 1926), 708-723.

A study of the press in general shows that much dissatisfaction with the forms of society existed among the masses. They blamed their poverty on bad government and on a form of Christianity corrupted by alliance with civil authority. Mass meetings were held demanding many reforms: manhood suffrage, election of the lower house, abolition of property qualifications for membership in the upper house, religious freedom, civil marriages only, no imprisonment for debt, discontinuance of superfluous offices, and others.

The breakdown of the traditional land system was an important cause for emigration. Formerly the *bönder*, a class of peasant proprietors with fairly large farms, would lease small tracts to the *törpare* who paid rent in kind and furnished labor for a certain number of days. Economic conditions soon placed the *bönder* in straitened financial circumstances. Banks called in loans, thus throwing on the market many estates. It has been the custom for the *bönder* in his declining years to give his eldest son his home and land in return for support. The fortunate son would borrow from others and pay off the other heirs. With the growth of banks, however, the *bönder* class began to sell their farms, invest in stocks and place their money in banks. Their sons, not getting farms, would migrate to America. Larger farms would be subdivided into smaller ones increasing the number of *törpare*. This class too began to migrate to improve its economic status.

With the turn of the century a government commission investigated conditions revealing the steady undermining of the peasant class and the decline of the *törpare*. The government cooperated with the "National Society against Emigration" to make

Sweden a better place for the common people and to acquaint them with the opportunities that were open to them in Sweden. Laws were enacted to benefit the small farmer and workingman in the cities. People were assisted to become home owners. Emigration then declined.

#### IRISH IMMIGRATION

The great Irish migration of the 'forties was due, of course, to the great famines of that period. It was greatly assisted by the landlords, who were not as cruel as most accounts picture them.<sup>2</sup>

Famines had been periodic in Ireland in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. As population was wiped out, there resulted a re-allotment of the estates. In the years that followed, the number of tenants on an estate would increase until famine occurred when there was again a great subdivision of the land. For example, a farm in County Clare was let in 1793 to one tenant. In 1847, it was occupied by ninety-six legal heirs and their families, numbering some 700 to 800 people. As Ireland could not support a large population, landlords began to encourage emigration.

The work of Francis Spaight is typical. In 1846, out of a hundred applications he financed the mi-

gration of twenty families. He gave each family landing-money, two guineas each, or £91 in all, and food for the trip. In 1847, he sent out 710 people. Sir Robert Booth of Sligo, in 1839, spent over £334 in assisting migration. Between 1834 and 1843 he spent £4000 in providing tenants with lands and houses on less-crowded land in Ireland. In 1847, he expended £5936 on provisions alone for tenants who migrated on three ships.

The horrors and cruelty afflicting the Irish peasantry were due not so much to the landlords as to the traditional mercantilism and nationalism of England which condemned Ireland to agricultural production only.

Many more Irish migrated during the great famine than statistics show. They were not accurately kept in Britain or in the United States. The records do not accurately report the number of Irish who sailed from Liverpool. Taking stock of these sailings and the records of Canada, which were accurate, it is found that 873,244 Irish migrated in the years 1846 through 1850, or 129,445 more than British and United States records indicate.

<sup>2</sup> Frances Morehouse, "The Irish Migration of the 'Forties," *American Historical Review*, XXXIII (April 1928), 579-592.

## Geography Today

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A century ago, American boys and girls who were studying geography, pored diligently over the pages of Peter Parley's *Geography for Beginners*. During the period of 1836-1851, nearly a million copies of this book were published in the United States and also several editions in England; it was translated into foreign languages and published in Greece, Australia, and Persia. Peter Parley was rather wary of the subjects of latitude and longitude and these he committed to the discretion of the teacher, who was supposed to teach with maps, if he thought his students were well advanced in the subject to understand such difficult matters.

The state of Vermont was given four lines and students learned that: "Vermont is mountainous, but it has some fine valleys. The people are sometimes called Green Mountain Boys and are noted for their intelligence and energy of character." New Jersey rated only two lines: "New Jersey is celebrated for its fine fruit, and its excellent vegetables. Trenton is the capital." Ireland was dismissed with the comment that it "is a fine island, nearly as extensive as

the state of New York." As for the Swiss, the students learned that: "The Swiss are an honest and interesting people; their dresses are peculiar, and they have many curious customs."

The illustrations for this book were quite remarkable in their own inimitable manner. There was a picture showing Alexander Selkirk teaching one of his goats to dance. If the student had nightmare, he probably dreamed of goats dancing on the Island of Juan Fernandez. In the illustration of a cork forest, the student was uncertain as to whether the corks grew on trees and were cut off by the men on the ground, or whether two drunken men were digging corks out of the ground.

Recitation at that time was by rote and the student was expected to answer such standard questions as: "What is geography?" "Where do fishes live?" "Which way is north?" "What is a cape?" "Where is the Pacific Ocean?" and "Who made the continents, islands, etc?" There were maps, too difficult for teacher or student to interpret without straining the eyes, and accompanied by directions



for the teacher to ask questions as to rivers, towns, states as he thought necessary.

Today, geography is recognized as one of the most important social studies and whether it is taught in elementary school under the name of plain geography or in the high school under such names as economic geography, business geography, or commercial geography, it now possesses a vitality that makes students eager to learn. Offhand, there is the temptation to say that modern world conditions are responsible for this change. One may point to the map of the world with shifting boundaries or the fight for resources as the cause of the new interest in geography. But what has actually made the subject come into its own is the use of new techniques and methods of teaching so that pupils are stimulated to learn. And by linking up present-day occurrences, students see geography as a living subject.

Though Peter Parley has long since gone to a well deserved rest, he would be thoroughly surprised were he to visit a modern classroom and see the equipment available for teaching purposes. The use of 16 mm. motion picture projectors, and even in some cases, sound projection machines, are now recognized as indispensable for geography teaching. Films of Brazil, coal mining, automobile manufacturing, Sweden, the silk industry, Chile, a rubber plantation, or sections of the United States are shown to the student and correlated with the textbook or the geography course of study. Many motion picture theatres show travelogues and the newsreels contain much about foreign countries. These can all be fitted into the class lesson. If a student has a collection of pictures taken while he travelled through the United States or some other country, the pictures can be shown upon a screen with the aid of a postal card projector. The candid camera is no longer a fad and as a result many a school teacher has been able to utilize such snapshots for illustrative purposes. The old fashioned slide projector and the modern film roll projector are both in use in the school.

The equipment found in a modern geography classroom is not designed for purposes of display for interested visitors, but for constant use by the students. One will find various kinds of maps, atlases, and globes. A special geography bookcase contains geographical publications issued by the government in addition to reference books, booklets, source books, travel stories, and other necessary reading material. The room is decorated by the students and their work on the walls provides a constant incentive not only for themselves but for other students.

In the early geography books there was little effort to bring ideas within the level of comprehension of the students. The modern geography book is written for a definite age level, using a studied vocabulary so that words may convey thought instead

of concealing it. The subject matter is divided into topics or units with various types of questions at the end of each topic or unit. Graphs, maps, illustrations, cartoons, and charts, all related to the textual material, are included in the geography text. And these books are being frequently revised. The age of teaching by question and answer is almost gone. This can be seen in the recommended reference works, the suggested collateral readings, teaching aids, summaries, reviews, project work, and thought questions of these texts.

The student no longer takes a group of essay questions for his test work. True-false questions, matching questions, short answer questions, or multiple answer questions now tax the ingenuity of the student as well as that of the teacher who has to make up the questions. Our students have to fill in blank maps and even interpret graphs on their examinations.

It may be true that the Chinese are well aware of the fact that one picture is worth many words. But we have for many years neglected the opportunity of teaching pupils how to look at a picture so as to get the most understanding from it. Pictures were often included in geography books to make them look more presentable and to increase sales. Today, illustrations bear a definite relation to the geography books and are studied as part of the lesson. America is becoming more picture-minded, for there are several very successful picture magazines such as *Look*, *Life*, *Friday*, and others, which are used by students in their search for pictures that bear a relation to their geography work.

The radio is being utilized to its fullest extent. Students listen to news reports and to the various commentators, and to special programs concerning industry or agriculture. It is surprising to realize how many students have their own radios at home and have developed the ability to listen to a radio program and to do their home work at the same time! The use of recording apparatus has made it possible to record a suitable program which may be on the air at a time when the student can not listen to it; save the record for the appropriate time and then play it to the class.

We teach students how to read the newspaper for geography news and they learn how to read value news reports, editorials, feature articles, syndicated columns, and even the cartoons. These items are read; kept in the notebook; and used either for current events discussions or correlated with the appropriate lesson. By teaching propaganda analysis we have been able to aid students develop some critical ability in weighing the printed word as well as the spoken word.

There are various geographical magazines that are read by the student and the list includes *The*



*National Geographic, Travel, Asia, Journal of Geography*, etc. My own technique of teaching includes a student review of the work of the previous day, a discussion of the current geographical news, a report on an article in a geographical magazine or a book pertaining to geography, and the discussion of the day's lesson. In making a report, a student first gives it as though he or she were addressing a lecture group; when the report is finished the student shows the connection between the work in geography and the material discussed; and then asks the class some questions on the material.

Maps are no longer wall decorations but are one of the most important instruments in teaching geography. Basically, map work is a method of visual representation and the students are taught how to read and make maps. In the hands of capable students maps can cause the students to think and to see the relationships between represented data and important geographical problems. Recent world events have caused leading newspapers to publish more and more maps in their daily and Sunday editions for the purpose of explaining current events.

There are educators who consider the map to be by far the most important of all the visual aids in education. It is a healthy sign that in much of our teaching, we no longer refer to the map, but we actually teach from it. The student who discusses the "cotton belt" must go to the map and show the class the states that compose this area; railroads are traced across maps as well as airline routes and automobile highways; ocean lanes are studied and river courses followed. Maps made by the students are carefully examined and returned with corrections and suggestions.

We are just beginning to realize the possibilities and opportunities offered in correlating geography with our foreign language teaching. In one of my classes I have a student who speaks and reads Spanish perfectly. I have given her copies of the Spanish edition of the *Bulletin of the Pan American Union*, which she has read, and reported on to the class in English. Much remains to be done within this field and at present, I have geography books in various languages for those of my students who can read a foreign language. With eyes towards South America, Spanish and the geography of South America make an excellent combination in any plan which has as its goal better harmonious relationships with our neighbors to the south.

Geography is not a static subject. New concepts are being taught to our students. For example, one concept is that the world is much smaller today than it was two centuries ago. True, the Atlantic Ocean is still some 3,000 miles across. But we no longer conceive of distance as measured in terms of miles, but in terms of time. Through the airplane,

Europe and South America are next door to us. If one uses the time concept in communication, the possibilities are even greater. With the radio merely as one of the most important in a group of communication devices, Europe and South America are at our armchair. We see that isolation is impossible because distance is meaningless. The students comprehend that this is a small interdependent world.

Another concept deals with science and the use of substitute products. We find it necessary to study the products that the laboratory has created and then follow their effects in the economy of the world. We watch nylon and rayon affect the Japanese; we predict the effect of synthetic rubber on the rubber plantation owner and his employees; and we see products of agriculture turned into commercial products. Make no mistake, the students are fully capable of understanding all this.

Students are given opportunities to do things that will enable them better to understand geography. While teaching about the various products, I discovered that some students had never seen barley and others had never seen corn meal. As a result my students began to make some exhibits of labeled bottled products to be used while learning about the various grains. The boys make "product boards." These consist of the demonstrated uses of certain materials. For example, one board will have a piece of crude rubber, with a rubber heel, a rubber fountain pen cap, the sole of a rubber shoe, a piece of rubber insulated wire, and a rubber hot water bottle. Another board has some raw cotton, a piece of a handkerchief, cotton seed, thread, and some rayon. The girls can dress dolls with a minute care as to detail in costumes worn in other lands. The process of soap sculpturing and wax modeling permits the construction of models of the different types of homes found in foreign countries. Nor are geography games, which may consist of guessing cards or an electrically operated geographical answer board, forgotten in the study of geography.

No longer do we work on the assumption that only the distantly located lands are of interest to the student. There is much in every community that can be used in the teaching of geography. Why talk of harbors and railroad facilities when the students can go and see these things with the teacher as a guide? In a like manner, factories are visited and the different operations in the making of goods are studied.

Many large concerns distribute free booklets, magazines, pamphlets and other kinds of literature that can be used by the students for extra reading material, which enable them to learn much about such varied topics as bananas, new products from chemistry, coffee, pineapples, shirts, cotton, iron, rayon, fishing, or corn.

Educators are beginning to realize that the traditional subject of civics is not always sufficient to train the citizen of tomorrow, for many of the problems which this generation must meet—and also which tomorrow's generation must meet—are essentially problems within the field of geography. The thoughtful citizen must weigh such important questions as those involved in the concepts of lebensraum, conservation of human and natural resources, political and geographical boundaries, racial prejudices and different customs, and international trade.

There are those who raise the question as to whether or not students in the public schools are really competent to pass judgment on the serious and complicated questions of the present. From my teaching of geography, I can definitely state that the

children of today can understand many serious and important questions if they are given accurate information, free from any bias. Many of our social problems have their roots in geographic conditions as one can see from the connection between soil erosion and the problem of farmers who have become migratory workers; the attempts to find new commercial uses for agricultural food crops and the results upon other competitive products; or the application of large scale production, modern technology, and electricity to the farm problem.

Students enjoy studying geography, for they are conscious that their assignments no longer belong to the numbered pages of some musty old book, but to life itself.

## World Cooperation and the High School Student

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In the summer of 1940, some educators and public speakers accused the teacher of "sentimental" teaching of peace and blamed this for a lack of principles among youth, a weakening of moral fibre, and an absence of a sense of individual responsibility. No one will deny that there has been sentimental teaching, but there has also been constructive teaching of peace, with desirable character training inherent in its lessons. In the summer of 1941, American leaders were coming to recognize the need to plan world cooperation, if intelligence is to replace again brute force. An ordered world cannot spring spontaneously out of the present chaos, or "just grow" like Topsy. The Atlantic Charter, enunciated by President Roosevelt and Prime Minister Churchill following their historic meeting, provides a program upon which discussion should focus. Lessons in world order begin in the school room.

If your classroom is responsible for a school program to celebrate a particular holiday, what do you do? The class chooses a committee to draw up a preliminary plan. Sub-committees are selected to carry out the details of the plan. The same procedure is used if a project involving only the class itself is attempted. In other words, wherever a specific activity is undertaken, it requires organization to achieve the purpose. Similarly, if the countries of the world desire to cooperate and adjust disputes peace-

ably instead of the present recourse to armed force and destruction, they must sooner or later recognize the need for the organization of machinery which will carry out these objectives.

Several agencies of international cooperation were set up at the end of the last great war, the League of Nations, the World Court, and the International Labor Organization. War came because the machinery for peace was too weak or too inefficient, but it does not follow that such machinery was useless or that strengthening of the organization could not be more effective for the future. We agreed above that means for cooperation and for carrying out a project are always necessary, whether the objectives be small or universal.

The course of world events in the last year has led the United States to revise its attitude that what happens in the rest of the world has little or no effect upon our own politics, economics, and social system. The national defense program which is absorbing all endeavor, needs the support of American youth, a youth with strong ideals and readiness to defend their principles. In the movement to enlist patriotic support of the defense plans, a retrograde policy in the social studies must not be adopted or carelessly allowed to develop. In the curriculum of our public high schools, social, economic, and cultural developments have received a larger measure

of attention than twenty years ago. The history of battles, fighting, and techniques of warfare were omitted as useless to train character and citizenship. Today, the study of machines falls within the field of mechanics, of physics, and engineering, but any attempt to inject the study of methods of warfare into the social studies would not only fail of any useful objective, but would detract from the real objectives of the classroom. The aim of the teacher is the fullest development of each student as rendered possible by the interplay of individual and collective development. This aim has frequently been aided by constructive study of world peace problems.

Ever since the League of Nations Association established its Annual Student Contest fifteen years ago, many thousands of high school students all over the United States have undertaken special supervised study of the ideals and the machinery of world peace. Those ideals must be kept in mind, fostered and spread, if world order is to replace the present chaos. Educators have universally recognized the idealism of youth in its teens. How much more constructive for the future is the training of this idealism and the development of a sense of responsibility for the championship of their ideals, than the encouragement of cynicism, indifference, or ignorant toleration!

The study material and the examination questions, sponsored by the League of Nations Association, have always included not merely a study of the three organizations set up after the last great war, but the wider issue of world organization from every angle. Appraisal of the strong and weak points of existing agencies of peace with suggestions for future improvement has always been an integral part of the study. It has been estimated that 60,000 people are reached to some extent by each of these annual contests: the teachers, the students, the parents, and in some cases, entire communities where winners of the contest live. Teachers of winning students from smaller communities have often expressed to the Association, the great value for the enrichment of the curriculum that the study offers and the influence toward widening the horizon of the local public which the winning student has exerted.

Nearly every year, approximately 1,000 schools have participated in the annual contest. The largest number in any one year was 1,548, in 1935. The incentives for entering the competition are alluring. Until a year ago, the national winner received a trip to Europe, which included a two weeks' stay in Geneva. A substitute trip to Brazil, Uruguay, and Argentina was awarded last spring to the winner, Warren Schultz, a high school senior from Ilion,

New York. That he was well prepared for the trip was attested by his answer to one of the questions on the examination which asked the students to describe machinery existing in the Western Hemisphere for regional organization of peace and the administration of inter-American affairs.

How much such a trip can mean to the individual student and the possibility of his influence upon opinion of those with whom he associates, are attested by a few of his observations on the journey to South America. He noted that South Americans knew English far better than North Americans know Spanish or Portuguese, and were much more eager to know about the United States than the average citizen here is to know about Latin American countries. Cultural cooperation should be prompted. Schultz indicated that the visit of the Yale Glee Club and of the Youth orchestra under the baton of Stokowski had exerted a good influence, and similar visits should be increased. He did not believe that the masses of Latin Americans were pro-Nazi, and he found Argentina strongly pro-British. As Schultz is a freshman at Hamilton College this fall, he has not had time since his return to draw up a full report of his South American visit.

The winners of the coveted first prize have come from almost as many different states as the fifteen years of the contest. Besides the large first prize, there are a number of lesser ones, with local branches of the League of Nations Association often awarding local prizes. Several scholarships are offered by outstanding colleges, open to winners and those receiving honorable mention.

Participation in the contest is undoubtedly stimulated by the prizes offered, but recognition of the value of such study for character training should lead more principals, chairmen of Social Studies, and individual teachers to encourage an even more widespread study of the problems of peace. The study materials combine idealism and practical consideration of the good and weak features of past and present agencies of world peace. Such a study is worth while for any group of students, irrespective of the contest. Inquiries about this year's contest, which will be held in April, 1942, should be addressed to Mrs. Harrison Thomas, League of Nations Association, 8 West 40th Street, New York City.

There is as much danger that some of our city youth will have an outlook upon life hemmed in by the skyscrapers that encircle their horizon as that youth in small communities may fail to see beyond their local community. It is the present high school generation that will assume a chief role in the building of the future world order, and they should be ready for that responsibility.



# A Social Studies Unit on Radio Broadcasting

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## INTRODUCTION

The average student, we are told, listens to the radio about two hours a day.<sup>1</sup> We may debate the desirability of some of this listening, but as teachers and administrators we cannot ignore the fact that the radio is a definite and vital factor in the lives of young people.

Nearly twenty years ago, when broadcasting was in its infancy, alert teachers of science capitalized upon student interest in this new and mysterious medium of communication; they welcomed the discussion of radio in the classroom and sponsored many a radio club for youthful enthusiasts. Radio was then regarded primarily as a "musical toy," and the game was to tune in to as many stations as possible during an evening. Within a single decade, however, awkward home-made sets gave way to factory models, great broadcasting networks were established, and the American public had discarded "station-hunting" for "program-listening." In great strides, radio became a purveyor of news, a source of entertainment, and a medium for advertising and for political propaganda.

How shall we deal with the subject of radio today? By every right, the study of radio deserves an important place in our social studies curricula. Would we study the printing press, and omit consideration of its product, the newspaper? Certainly not. And yet, while there are indications that our students learn more current news from the radio than from the daily papers,<sup>2</sup> we are still teaching from textbooks which devote pages to the newspaper and dismiss radio with a few paragraphs. Surely our instruction is lagging behind the "March of Time!"

The unit on "Radio Broadcasting" which is outlined in this article has been used by the author to supplement the study of "Communication" in the ninth grade course in business training at Waterville, Minnesota. The general content of the unit, however, also makes it suitable for use in a social problems course in the senior high school.

## ORGANIZATION OF CONTENT

The content of this unit centers around these five

<sup>1</sup> I. Keith Tyler, "How Does Radio Influence Your Child?" *California Parent-Teacher*, (November, 1935).

<sup>2</sup> Claude C. Lammers, "Sources of Pupils' Information on Current Affairs," *School Review*, (January, 1938).

topics: (1) history of radio broadcasting; (2) a survey of radio in American life today; (3) bases for evaluating radio programs; (4) the regulation of radio; and (5) the position of radio stations as business enterprises. An outline of the course follows:

### 1. Three phases in the history of radio broadcasting:

- a. Broadcasting was started by the manufacturers of radio equipment as a means of expanding the market for their products.

Pioneering in this endeavor was the Westinghouse Company, which demonstrated the practicability of radio by a successful broadcast of the 1920 election returns over station KDKA, Pittsburgh.

- b. Sponsored programs were inaugurated by a broadcast from WEAJ (New York) in 1922.

- c. Network broadcasts began with the organization of the NBC chain in 1926, followed by CBS a year later.

### 2. The place of radio in American life:

- a. A survey of radio broadcasting shows that—

- (1) There are approximately 900 stations.
- (2) The annual revenue from sponsored programs is about \$200,000,000.
- (3) Those directly employed in broadcasting number 45,000.
- (4) Those employed in the radio industry in its larger aspects number 375,000.

Inasmuch as the glamour surrounding the radio field has been exploited by those offering training courses of doubtful value, a frank discussion of the opportunities in radio would be very pertinent.

- b. A survey of the radio audience shows that—

- (1) There are 50,000,000 radio sets in use.
- (2) About 20,000,000 homes have one or more sets.
- (3) As many as 35,000,000 people listen



to certain of the more popular programs.

- (4) The average home radio is in use about four hours a day.<sup>3</sup>

3. Bases for evaluating radio programs:

- a. An evaluation of news commentaries and discussions of current problems includes consideration of—

(1) Voice quality and clearness of enunciation.

(2) Qualifications of the speaker (*i.e.*, is the speaker an authority in his field?)

(3) Purpose of speaker—

Explain that an academic "round table" discussion must be interpreted differently from a "rabble-rousing" propagandist speech.

- b. An evaluation of entertainment programs includes consideration of—

(1) Ability of performers.

(2) Technical perfection (*i.e.*, sound effects, timing of program, etc.).

(3) Honesty in portrayal of life.

Apply this point especially to serial dramatizations.

- c. An evaluation of advertising includes a consideration of—

(1) Effectiveness of the advertising.

Is the advertising original? Does it avoid objectionable extremes in amount and quality?

(2) Honesty of the advertising.

Emphasize the fact that our Pure Food and Drugs Acts prevent the use of false labels, but they do not prevent extravagant and misleading claims in radio advertising. The activities of advertisers might be compared with the duties of the "barkers" at a carnival.

4. Regulation of radio:

- a. On the technical side, a need for regulation arises because if two or more stations operate on approximately the same wave-length there is interference.

- b. Under powers broad enough to permit some censorship, as well as the needed technical control, the Federal Communications Commission has been given authority to license stations to operate in the "public interest, convenience, and necessity."

To what extent does the FCC actually

exercise censorship? In what ways do our radio stations serve the "public interest, convenience and necessity?" How does the American type of control differ from the British system? the totalitarian systems?

5. The position of radio stations as business enterprises:

- a. Radio stations, like newspapers, depend in large measure upon advertising for their revenue.

- b. In order to check upon the effectiveness of their advertising medium, radio stations solicit responses from listeners in the form of contest entries, requests for free gifts, etc.

Emphasize the fact that the solicited responses do not come from the most discriminating listeners. Since radio stations and program sponsors attempt to give their audiences what they want, the discriminating listeners would do well to write letters more frequently, expressing their reactions to the various programs.

SUGGESTED PROCEDURE

A desirable procedure for beginning the unit is to have students list their five favorite radio programs on a questionnaire form. Students will show a keen interest in the results of the tabulations. Next, by using the composite list of favorite programs as a starting point, proceed to a discussion of the various *types* of radio programs (*i.e.*, dance music, dramatizations, variety programs, quiz programs, and others).

These preliminary procedures will help to introduce the "home work" for the unit. Ask the students to listen carefully to at least ten to fifteen programs for a period of a week. Provide duplicated "listening reports" on which students may give name of program, name of sponsor, time of broadcast, station or network carrying program, and, most important of all, a personal evaluation of the program. Insist that students report on a wide variety of programs so that they may gain a better appreciation of what radio offers. This assignment may have to be waived for those students who do not have a radio at home, but in a typical class this number is small.

In a further development of this unit, some of the following suggestions may be of value:

- (1) Arrange a student excursion to a near-by radio station, including, if possible, the witnessing of an actual broadcast.

- (2) Develop certain recitation periods around the dramatization of out-standing radio programs. For example, appoint a board of "experts" to dramatize

<sup>3</sup> Data in this section taken from *Building America*, Vol. VI, No. 5.

an "Information Please" program, using questions about radio broadcasting submitted by other members of the class. Another possibility is a "Town Meeting of the Air" Program, with student speakers giving their versions on some such topic as: "Should broadcasting be financed by the government rather than by advertisers?"

(3) Have students write short letters of appreciation to the sponsors of their favorite programs. Approve the letters for both form and content before they are mailed.

(4) Appoint student committees to supply a bulletin board with notices, illustrations, and clippings on the "preferred listening" for each week.

#### CONCLUSION

Of what value to high school students is this unit on radio broadcasting? First, the students will gain an appreciation of the importance of radio. Second, they will learn how to analyze radio programs for their strong and weak points. Third, they will learn that one must be wary about accepting in full the statements of advertisers. Fourth, they will have a better understanding of the problem of radio control. They should be made to realize that the "freedom of the air" is a basic factor in democratic government. And fifth, they will gain an appreciation of the problems of radio stations as business enterprises seeking to please the public.

## Beyond the Pale of the Law on the American Frontier

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During the course of the last half century hundreds of volumes have been printed on one aspect or another of frontier life in the United States. Some of these have been dry narrations of historical events; and others have been concerned with the dramatization of special incidents, which were unprecedented in number, variety, and environmental setting.

Of the characters involved in life on the frontier, the full gamut was run. They included the traditional lawyer, doctor, beggar-man, and thief. Although much has been written about the "two-gun" men, the American public has come to look upon all frontiersmen as enthusiastic patriots who had ventured out beyond the settled areas to face the attacks of hostile Indians, the privations of pioneer life, and the isolation from civilization for the sake of the betterment of society. As a matter of fact, nothing could be further from the truth. The frontiersmen were not essentially different from other people except in their restlessness and individualism. The majority of them were industrious and orderly members of society, whose chief ambition was to take advantage of the opportunities which the frontier offered to those who wished to pay the price for them. The minority, however, was composed for the most part of individuals who were dissatisfied with life in their home environment. To those who could not or would not pay their debts, the West was a haven of escape. Moreover, the fugitive from justice found the trails to the West well beaten by those of his kind who had preceded him. Especially numerous were those who sought to escape uncompanion-

able wives in an age when divorces were few and difficult to obtain. Indeed, to all these dissatisfied or disgruntled individuals the frontier offered a veritable paradise, a place where no questions were asked, where "bygones were bygones," and where a man's reputation was based on his immediate standing and not on the wealth or official position of his grandfather or the variety of petticoats his mother wore. Of special significance was the pronounced influence which the frontier had on those who came within its power. According to Frederick Jackson Turner, the great historian of the American West, in his *The Frontier in American History*:

The wilderness masters the colonist. It finds him a European in dress, industries, tools, modes of travel, and thought. It takes him from the railroad car and puts him in a birch canoe. It strips off the garments of civilization and arrays him in the hunting shirt and the moccasin. It puts him in the log cabin . . . and runs an Indian Palisade around him. Before long he has gone to planting corn and plowing with a sharp stick; he shouts the war cry and takes the scalp in orthodox Indian fashion. In short, at the frontier the environment is at first too strong for the man. He must accept the conditions which it furnishes, or perish, and so he fits himself into the Indian clearings and follows the Indian trails. Little by little he transforms the wilderness, but the outcome is not the old Europe or eastern seaboard settlement whence he came.

This is a somewhat gloomy observation on the fact that civilization, generally speaking, declined when it struck the frontier. Almost invariably the literacy of the second generation of the pioneers suffered a marked decline—often a falling off of more than one hundred per cent. The frontier was necessarily handicapped by a lack of leisure and by the great distance from seats of culture—"that delicate plant which does not easily take root in a wilderness." Indeed, people of refinement became frontiersmen with difficulty because of the scanty diet available for the mind.

At the same time, there was much on the frontier to bring out the more base and sordid qualities of man. He often found it easy to become an outlaw of the most despicable sort. Not only were the restraints of organized society and of government deficient, but the emphasis on individual prowess was so great that the step from the recognition of the rules of society to the total disregard of them was short and easy. T. P. Abernethy, in his excellent book, *From Frontier To Plantation In Tennessee*, gives the following apt characterization of the frontiersman:

A hardy race were these pioneers. They could scalp an Indian—thus turning the tables on the natives—could behead a criminal with a butcher knife and then eat corn from the sack in which they carried the dis severed head, butcher a pig or a calf and serve up the meat within an hour, or devour flesh after the odor had become stifling. They were ready fighters, and an eye was sometimes gouged out or an ear bitten off in the process of fisticuff. In the latter event, the unfortunate one would find it necessary to have the fact entered on the court record to protect himself from the suspicion that the ear had been cropped for crime. The frontiersmen loved to shoot and gamble, to swear and to drink. . . . These stalwart backwoodsmen were a blend of much that was fine and much that was coarse. They were as a rule hospitable, generous, and reasonably courageous, though they were not always the intrepid Indian fighters that one is accustomed to imagine them. They liked to "frolick" more than they liked to work, and their tempers were quite undisciplined. They were capable of much cruelty and much kindness, and were inclined to take the cash and let the credit go.

Needless to say, the manner of life on the westward moving frontiers varied greatly because conditions on no two of them were identical. Settlements in the wooded regions to the east of the Mississippi, in the prairie sections of Illinois and Iowa, in the semi-arid Great Plains east of the Rockies, and in the mining centers in the Far West each called for definite characteristics in its inhabitants and fairly

well standardized procedures of labor. At the same time, they all had common characteristics. Moreover, the evolution in each community of the agencies of civilized society was fairly uniform.

A typical example of this process might be cited in the case of Nashville, Tennessee. This town was founded in 1779 by about 240 settlers. Five years later, North Carolina organized the region in which Nashville was located into a county and erected a log court house, a log jail, and pillory. In 1785, the first physician appeared; and in 1786, the first lawyer came, and the first church and the first school were built. In 1788, a road was opened to East Tennessee, 250 miles away, and the first vehicle appeared in the town. By 1791 the inhabitants lived in six log houses and some thirty or forty cabins. One year later the town boasted of two taverns, one distillery, one general store, and one blacksmith shop. The first brick house was built in 1796, mail service was established in 1797, the first theatrical company came to town in 1817, and the first theater building was constructed in 1820. (In 1810 the population was 1,100; in 1820, 3,500.)

A few statistics of other typical communities are interesting in interpreting the manner of life of the people. In 1760, the eighty-eight men, chiefly Indian traders, twenty-nine women, and thirty-two children of Pittsburgh lived in 146 houses and thirty-six huts. According to Albert T. Volwiler, in his *George Croghan*, nearly all the men were hard drinkers, and many were fugitives from eastern justice or were escaped debtors. Regardless of the fact that the population increased rapidly during the years following 1760, it was not until after the Revolution that the first clergyman accepted a regular charge in the city. In 1790, the year Kentucky entered the Union as a state, less than one-third of the population of about 100,000 had any church connections whatever, and the church membership was approximately 10,000. In 1869, Abilene, Kansas, then a cattle town of considerable importance, had a population of 800 with thirty saloons and nearly as many houses of ill-fame. "Wild Bill" Hickok, who "cleaned up" the place, was a criminal of some repute in his own right. Of his work as marshal of Abilene, W. D. Conelley, in *The Press of the Pioneer*, writes:

There was always a heavy bowie knife with a razor blade edge concealed in his sash. He was armed with a sawed off shot gun, and in addition he sometimes carried a repeating rifle. He patrolled the streets walking in the centre. He knew that he was liable to be assassinated any time. When he entered a building he always kicked the door back against the wall so that no one could be concealed there. Once inside, he stood where he could face the crowd. He talked little. But what he did say was to the point. The people—the good man and the bad



—quickly learned that he stood solemnly for order. . . . It was the iron will of one man holding at bay the malice, the crime, and recklessness of the wickedest town on the frontier. . . .

San Francisco may be cited as an illustration of a typical mining town, although the mines themselves were located nearly 200 miles away. In 1849, that city's population numbered 40,000, of whom 700 were women. Saloons, gambling houses, and houses of ill-fame were the outstanding features of the city. The peace of mind and security of those settlers in California may be gleaned from the fact that murders were almost daily occurrences in the place between the years 1849 and 1856.

The manner of life in the gold area in the Sierras east of Sacramento, about 1850, is indicated by the names given to mining camps, some of which have survived as towns or cities. Among these are Murderer's Bar, Jackass Flat, Squabbletown, Dead Man's Gulch, Growlersburg, Whisky Hill, Pinch-em-tight, Dogtown, Poor Man's Creek, Henpeck Flat, Muletown, Sweet Revenge, Gouge Eye, Liar's Flat, Lousy Level, Git up and Git, Mad Mule Gulch, Puckersville, Slapjack, New Jerusalem, Grass Valley, etc.

It goes without saying that life in typical pioneer agricultural settlements was essentially different from that in such places as the cattle town of Abilene, the trading center of Pittsburgh, and the mining communities of the Far West. Even there, however, the character of the pioneers, generally speaking, was much the same. To be sure, the farming regions had a greater degree of permanency and fewer drifters than those others. But despite their greater percentage of women, usually a sobering influence, they had much crime and lawlessness of one sort or another. To this fact the court records bear evidence. So do also the newspapers' accounts of voluntary law enforcing agencies, among which were those private organizations designed to capture and punish horse and cattle thieves. The minutes of frontier churches, which acted as disciplinary agents for their members, disclose also an inordinately large amount of immorality among the good brethren. Although violent crimes, such as homicide, were less common than in the towns, the rural sections had a vast deal of fighting and blood feuds. A rather graphic picture of a fight between a Kentuckian and a Virginian in the back country of Virginia as related by an Englishman, Thomas Ashe, in his *Travels in America, Performed in 1806*, will be sufficient to illustrate the humane regard which one agricultural frontiersman bore for another. After an argument of no special significance in a drunken debauch, the two men agreed to "fight it out." Ashe, who saw the affair, thus describes the encounter:

A ring was formed, and the mob demanded whether they proposed to fight fair, or to rough

and tumble. The latter mode was preferred. Perhaps you do not exactly understand the distinction of these terms. Fight fair, however, is much in the English manner; and here, as there, anything foul required interference; but when the parties choose to rough and tumble, neither the populace nor individuals are to intermeddle or to hinder either combatant from tearing or rending the other on the ground, or in any other situation. You startle at the word tear and rend, and again do not understand me. You have heard these terms I allow applied to beasts of prey, and carnivorous animals; and your humanity cannot conceive them applicable to man: it nevertheless is so; the fact will not permit me to use any less expressive term. Let me proceed. Bulk and bone were in favor of the Kentuckian; science and craft in that of the Virginian. The former promised himself victory from his power, the latter from his science. Very few rounds had taken place, or fatal blows given, before the Virginian contracted his whole form, drew up his arms to his face, with his hands nearly closed in a conclave, by the fingers being bent the full extension of the flexors, and summoning up all his energy for one act of desperation, pitched himself into the bosom of his opponent. Before the effect of this could be ascertained, the sky was rent by the shouts of the multitude; and I could learn that the Virginian had expressed as much beauty and skill in his retraction and bound, as if he had been bred in a menagerie, and practiced action and attitude among panthers and wolves. The shock received by the Kentuckian, and the want of breath, brought him instantly to the ground. The Virginian never lost his hold, he kept his knees on the enemy's body; fixing his claws in his hair and his thumbs on his eyes, gave them an instantaneous start from their sockets. The sufferer roared aloud, but uttered no complaint. The citizens again shouted with joy: and bets of three to one were made on the Virginian.

The Kentuckian then gripped tightly to his opponent, and the two rolled over and over. Meanwhile he lost his ears and his nose. The Kentuckian then got the upper hand:

Some deamon interposed for the big monster; he got his enemy under him, and in an instant snapped off his nose so close to his face that no manner of projection remained. The little Virginian made one further effort, and fastening on the under lip of his mutilator tore it over the chin. The Kentuckian at length gave out, on which the people carried off the victor . . . to be chaired round the ground as the champion of the times, and the first rougher and tumbler.



The poor wretch, whose eyes were started from their spheres, and whose lip refused its office, returned to the town, to hide his impotence and get his countenance repaired.

This masterful display of the nimbleness of the fingers of this victorious gouger was by no means an unusual occurrence on the frontier. Indeed, gouging and biting were so commonly used in fights that many of the southern and western states passed laws forbidding the practice and fixing penalties on those who violated them. These punishments are interesting in that they imposed small fines or short terms of imprisonment depending on whether the offense was for removing one or both eyes or for the biting off the nose, ears, or fingers. In spite of legislation of this sort, however, few cases ever came up for adjudication. When the participants in a fight agreed on the terms that were to govern the contest, not only did they abide by the consequences, but the onlookers, who often included the law enforcing officers of the community, observed the affray with interest. To all alike the important point was the observance of the rules agreed upon by the contestants. To appeal to the law in such instances was an unpardonable act of cowardice. Thus the law was enforced as a rule only when it was specifically called in question either by a victim or by outside parties. As a matter of fact, gouging and biting continued until fairly recent times. The diaries of many who traveled by caravan to Oregon and California during the forties and fifties refer frequently to brawls in which eyes were snapped out and fingers, noses, and ears were bitten or pulled off while the members of the group viewed the spectacle with apparent interest and delight.

These shocking evidences of barbarism were not peculiar to the frontier alone, although they were more prevalent there than elsewhere.

One instance may be recalled in the case of the duel between Aaron Burr and Alexander Hamilton in 1804. Not only was Burr never brought up for trial for this murder, but he continued to preside over the deliberations of the Senate during the remainder of his term as Vice-President of the United States. When he arrived in Nashville during a tour of the west one year after the duel, he found that the city had declared a holiday in his honor. Moreover, a pageant was staged for his edification, in which the chief characters were Burr and Hamilton and the climax showed the killing of the arch-Federalist conservative, Alexander Hamilton, by the patriotic and popular hero, Aaron Burr. Another famous duel was that in which in 1806 Andrew Jackson killed Charles Dickinson—just one of several unfortunate individuals whose span of life was shortened by the unerring marksmanship of a future President of the United States. In fact duels were very common among the upper classes in the West at that time. During

one single Sunday afternoon in 1814, thirteen duels were reported to have been fought in the city of New Orleans. As late as 1825, Henry Clay and John Randolph exchanged shots in a duel fought in Virginia. From this time to the Civil War, however, this method of settling disputes became less frequent everywhere.

These few illustrations chosen at random are sufficient to indicate the rather low ethical standards and the consequent prevalence of a considerable amount of crime on the succession of frontiers in the course of the westward movement of our population. This condition, as has been seen, was due in part to the kinds of people who migrated to the frontier and in part to their environmental influences. At the same time, the fact that these in turn varied from place to place and from time to time should be emphasized, because no two frontier settlements were exactly alike.

One common factor of considerable significance, however, in the development of such frontier characteristics as extreme individualism, self-reliance, and a reluctance to appeal to the law for the redress of grievances was inherent to the manner of life forced on those who first established themselves on the outer fringe of the settled areas. Especially significant was the continued existence of wide expanses of territory, unsettled save by the Indians, always to the west of the frontier line. Large numbers of venturesome souls kept moving into the unsurveyed areas beyond the reaches of the law, the restrictions of organized society, the tax collector, the restraining influence of family ties, and the ministrations of the clergy. Since they did not and could not acquire title to the land they occupied as squatters, they paid no taxes and in turn received no protection from the law, which so far as they were concerned was nonexistent. At one time, in the early history of the West, 100,000 of these squatters are said to have occupied land belonging to the heirs of William Penn in Central and Southwestern Pennsylvania alone. Similar situations prevailed on practically every frontier in the trek across the continent, regardless of whether the chief attraction was agriculture, cattle raising, or the exploitation of a mine on some mountain side hundreds of miles away from any of the agencies of government.

Thrown thus on their own resources as they assuredly were, these drifters, poachers, squatters, fugitives from justice, or whatever their classification, became necessarily each a law unto himself. He provided for the needs of his family, if he chanced to have one, and defended himself against the Indians and such of his fellow white men as chanced to cross his path. In short, for a period at least, he became a self-sufficient social and economic entity. With the passing of time, however, he was joined by increasing numbers of people of his kind. Gradually

they built houses and accumulated live stock and other private property. This acquisition of property by the more energetic or the more fortunate, subjected those possessing it to the depredations of the desperate and lawless individuals who were to be found in all frontier territory. Unable to appeal for redress to the government, since they had none, they began to organize into units for their own welfare. Literally, hundreds of such protective associations were established out beyond the pale of the law as the frontier moved toward the Pacific. Because of the natural diversity of conditions under which these operated, they varied greatly in form and objectives. Nevertheless, a brief description of a few typical groups will indicate their general characteristics.

Though not representative in all respects, the Mayflower Compact may properly be listed as the first of these societies. The so-called Separatists in Leyden, Holland, desiring for various reasons to transplant their colony to America, secured from the Virginia Company a patent for a private plantation. Accordingly, the Pilgrims, reinforced by some seventy persons from London, sailed from Plymouth in September, 1620, and arrived off Cape Cod in November. Since Cape Cod lay outside the jurisdiction of the limits of the Virginia Company, their settlement at Plymouth was on land to which they had no legal title. Moreover, they had received no commission to establish a system of government for themselves except in Virginia. Some of the London recruits were an "undesirable lot" and, William Bradford tells us, boasted that they were not under the jurisdiction of the Virginia Company and "would use their owne libertie." In this emergency the Pilgrim leaders acted in a typical frontier manner. In order to establish some sort of law and order, therefore, they drew up the Mayflower Compact. The signers of this document did:

solemnly and mutually . . . covenant ourselves together into a Civil Body Politic, for our better Ordering and Preservation, and Furtherance of the Ends aforesaid; and by Virtue thereof do enact, constitute, and frame, such just and Equal Laws, Ordinances, Acts, Constitutions, and Offices, from time to time, as shall be thought most meet and convenient for the Genral Good of the Colony; unto which we promise all du Submission and Obedience. . . .

Consequently, under this extra legal, voluntary agreement they proceeded to exercise the customary functions of government.

Shortly before the American Revolution a group of settlers on the Watauga river in what is now eastern Tennessee found themselves in a similar situation. Instead of establishing themselves in Virginia as they had intended, they discovered to their dismay that they were not only located to the west of the Proclamation Line of 1763 on land set apart by

the Crown for the exclusive use of the Indians but also to the south of the Virginia boundary. Moreover, they found in their midst numerous criminals who had fled to the frontier to escape justice. Consequently, they proceeded to frame a government of their own under the title "Articles of the Watauga Association." Under this document they established manhood suffrage, organized a militia, negotiated a treaty with the Indians, recorded deeds for land, tried and punished offenders against their regulations, and issued marriage licenses. Thus the Association constituted a temporary expedient to meet a crisis in the affairs of a frontier community cut off by the barriers of forest, wilderness, and mountain from the reach of the arm of royal or provincial government. After some six years this region was organized into Washington county, North Carolina, and the Association ceased to function. Watauga became the model for a long series of miniature republics created under like circumstances.

Somewhat different were the Land Claims Associations in the old Northwest, and to a less extent in the other sections of the country. Several hundred of these existed at one time or another in what became the agricultural region of the Middle West. These, like the instances just cited, were extra-legal, extra-constitutional political organizations, which reflected certain principles of American life and character. As the United States came into possession of the land in the West in various ways, Congress gradually provided an orderly method for its survey and settlement. Meanwhile, the frontier population grew so rapidly that it outran the public surveyors. Consequently, by the time any given region was ready for the official opening hundreds of thousands of people were found to have squatted on the most favorably situated and most fertile lands. Through the medium of Claims Associations which they had organized to provide the ordinary functions of government they carefully recorded their land claims. Thus when the land office of the government at Washington had completed its surveys and Congress had authorized the opening of areas to settlement, the squatters acting through their Claims Associations either persuaded Congress to enact pre-emption laws giving them prior claims at the minimum governmental price for the lands they occupied or prevented outsiders by force and intimidation from bidding on land registered with the Associations. Invariably the squatters got what they wanted.

West of the rich agricultural area of the Mississippi River basin lay the cattleman's domain, covering more than a million square miles of timberless, semi-arid land owned by the United States government. During the years immediately following the Civil War, the cattle industry spread rapidly throughout this region. Consequently, by the late seventies, some

(Continued on page 315)

# ILLUSTRATED SECTION

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## NAPOLEON AND EUROPE



*Courtesy of The Metropolitan Museum*

This portrait by Jacques Louis David (1748-1825), designated by Napoleon as "first painter to the Imperial Court," celebrates one of the great moments in Napoleon's life, his crossing Mount St. Bernard. The Emperor, who had requested the court painter to paint his portrait, refused to sit for the picture and the artist proceeded to do this ideal portrait. In its symbolical nature it suggests the grandiose portraits of Louis XIV. Napoleon actually crossed Mount St. Bernard on a mule led by a peasant.



# NAPOLEON AND EUROPE



This contemporary cartoon and the three which follow, by James Gillray, the English cartoonist, reflect the ups and downs of Napoleon's career. "Armed Heroes" was published on the date England declared war on Napoleon (May 18, 1803). "The Great Doctor A" was Prime Minister Addington.



By February, 1805, when this appeared the issue was clearly joined between Pitt and the recently crowned successor of Charlemagne. Napoleon takes all Europe, while Pitt contents himself with the ocean.

## NAPOLEON AND EUROPE



*Courtesy of The Metropolitan Museum*

Coronation of the Emperor Napoleon in Notre Dame, Paris, December 2, 1804, also painted by Jacques Louis David in the series of paintings celebrating great moments in Napoleon's life. The original is twenty-one feet high and thirty-three feet long and contains more than two hundred figures. The Pope is at Napoleon's left seated on a throne. Napoleon is surrounded by the kings of Naples and Holland and dignitaries of the Church. Napoleon's mother, Madame Mère, is in center back of the kneeling Josephine. After viewing it before it was shown to the public, Napoleon was so delighted with it that he bestowed on David the medal of the Legion of Honor. It is regarded by many critics as the artist's masterpiece.

This scene from the Russian campaign is of interest as being one of the sketches made on the spot by Albrecht Adam (1786-1862). In 1809 he came to Vienna and entered the services of Prince Eugene de Beauharnais. In 1812 in company with de Beauharnais—then Viceroy of Italy—he went to Russia and on his return published a volume of sketches covering various aspects of the famous Russian campaign.



# NAPOLEON AND EUROPE



**TIDDY-DOLL, the great French Gingerbread-Baker, drawing out a new Batch of Kings.** — See Hans Huppert's "The Dutch Oven" in the "Penny Illustrated" of 1806.

Appearing at the time of Pitt's death (January 23, 1806), this cartoon prophetically anticipates much of the king-making of a later period. The terms of the Treaty of Pressburg (1805) are represented in the figures on the baker's shovel and in other details of the picture.



By 1808 the situation had become threatening. Napoleon's brother, Joseph, is struggling in the "Ditch of Styx." Out of the "Lethean Ditch" in the foreground "the Rhenish Confederation of Starved Rats" are "coming out of the mud"; "the Dutch frogs" are "spitting out their spite"; the "American rattlesnake" is "shaking his tail"; and even the "Prussian scare crow" is "attempting to fly."



fifteen million buffaloes had been practically exterminated; and in their place hundreds of ranchers grazed their herds.

The territorial laws, courts, and local governments of this region either were non-existent or were so sketchy that they proved to be inadequate to minister to this business which had developed quickly and for which they had no guide or pattern in the world's history. To cope with this situation the cattlemen formed large numbers of protective associations. The most influential of these was the Wyoming Stock Grower's Association, which for at least a decade was the unchallenged dictator of the Territory of Wyoming. It presented to the territorial legislature the laws it wished to have passed, and they were passed. Finally, in 1884, it secured from the legislature a grant of full power to enforce in the name of the territory certain laws dealing with the cattle industry. Since the cattlemen operated on the public domain, they sought to prevent the occupation of the country by dirt farmers; and consequently, in the pursuance of this end, they destroyed crops, cut fences, and drove away any permanent settlers who tried to come into any region which had been marked by the cattlemen as cattle country. In the enforcement of their regulations against thievery the cattlemen were relentless. Those who chanced to come under their suspicions were spared the expense of long and involved trials by receiving the usual punishment meted out to cattle thieves throughout the West—namely, the simple expedient of a rope fastened securely about the neck of the thief at one end and to the tail of a wild horse at the other. The release of the horse quickly obliterated the worries of the thief and at the same time relieved the cattle country of the need for expensive courts, legal procedures, and loss of time. These cattlemen, like the other frontiersmen mentioned above, at first occupied land to which they had no title and operated for the most part in the furtherance of their business beyond the pale of the law. Such laws as existed, dealing with their particular industry, they created.

The funds for their maintenance came from the members of the associations, whose regulations were so rigid that few indeed declined to meet their obligations.

In the hundreds of mining communities in the Far West, most of which developed overnight in isolated sections at great distances from the arm of the law, a similar course of procedure was followed. At first each individual served as his own protector and as the sole judge of his conduct. Later, as the population grew, desperate men came in increasing numbers; and a reign of terror began, in which law and order ceased to exist, and men were ruthlessly murdered on the flimsiest pretexts. Out of this developed the Vigilantes, volunteer organizations of citizens for the suppression and punishment of crime, through which peace was restored, and life and property were made secure. In some instances the Vigilantes preceded the establishment of local governmental agencies; but in others, notably in San Francisco, they forcefully superseded the existing government. When efficient governments were finally established the Vigilantes, having no further excuse to exist, eventually disbanded.

Thus, the successive frontiers throughout American history have developed needed customs, laws, and organizations. The era of the fur trader produced its hunters, its barter, and the great fur companies; on the mining frontier came the staked claims and the vigilance committees; on the margins of the settlement the claims clubs protected the rights of the squatter farmers; and on the ranchman's frontier the millions of cattle, the vast ranges, the ranches, and the cattle companies produced pools, and districts, territorial, and national associations. To a greater or less degree large numbers of settlers on all these frontiers operated for a time at least on land which they did not own, located far beyond the reach of the law. While in each instance their problems were fundamentally the same, their approach to the solution varied from frontier to frontier as environmental and other conditions dictated.

## Geographic Games and Tests

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The October, 1941, number of *THE SOCIAL STUDIES* contained the first of a series of geographic games and tests planned for courses in geography, history and the social studies in general. The series will be continued throughout the year.

The difficulty of the games may be increased

by omitting the answers found at the bottom of each one, by putting a time limit on the completion of them, or by assigning them simply for study. There will be about 100 games in the entire series so that there is provided a wide range from which selection to fit particular needs may be made.

## G 25. THE WORLD'S FORESTS AND THEIR USES

Name in the spaces provided the principal tree which:

1. Serves as an important South American source of tannin. \_\_\_\_\_
2. Provides an essential part of our automobiles. \_\_\_\_\_
3. Bears a tropic fruit important for its oil. \_\_\_\_\_
4. Furnishes a substitute for real ivory. \_\_\_\_\_
5. Depends in part upon elephants for logging operations. \_\_\_\_\_
6. Furnishes a raw material for bottle stoppers. \_\_\_\_\_
7. Is the favorite for making newsprint paper. \_\_\_\_\_
8. Is a source of a highly prized sugar in northern U. S. \_\_\_\_\_
9. Is said to want its "feet in the water; its head in the sun." \_\_\_\_\_
10. Is an important Central American cabinet wood. \_\_\_\_\_
11. Is the principal source of lumber in our northwest. \_\_\_\_\_
12. Is much used for light building construction in the Orient. \_\_\_\_\_
13. Yields solidified turpentine or kauri gum. \_\_\_\_\_
14. Is the best known source of quinine. \_\_\_\_\_
15. Provides one of the most popular beverages. \_\_\_\_\_
16. Formerly furnished important dye stuff. \_\_\_\_\_
17. Is prized because it is moth repellent. \_\_\_\_\_
18. Provides the bulk of our naval stores. \_\_\_\_\_
19. Is a favorite for the black keys of the piano. \_\_\_\_\_
20. Is much used for making baskets. \_\_\_\_\_
21. Grows in the tropics and when cut yields the odor of roses. \_\_\_\_\_
22. Is the most important source of U. S. lumber \_\_\_\_\_
23. Is the world's largest species. \_\_\_\_\_
24. Provides the chief food of silk worms. \_\_\_\_\_
25. Furnishes the world's lightest wood. \_\_\_\_\_

Douglas Fir, Balsa, Sequoia, Mulberry, Pine, Quebracho, Rubber, Rosewood, Pine, Palm, Willow, Cinchona, Ebony, Tagua, Mahogany, Teak, Cedar, Dyewood, Cocoa, Bowboo, Pine, Spruce, Maple, Cork Oak, Palm.

## G 26. A. THE SEVEN MOST USEFUL MINE PRODUCTS

In the sentences below are hidden the names of the world's seven most useful mine products—one in each sentence. The letters spelling the name are in their correct order. Underline the names. The list is given at the end of the exercise.

1. The traffic cop permitted him to go free.
2. The juice of an apple added to the beverage seemed to improve the flavor.
3. "I warn you, Sir, only a miracle can save your life."
4. The drug "alum," I numbered among those we might still try.
5. The inspector discovered cacao leaking from the package.
6. Boiling the meat longer made it tender.
7. The cheering, which at our distance was just a buzz, increased to a roar as we neared the crowd.

Coal, Oil, Copper, Lead, Zinc, Iron, Aluminum.

## B. A TREASURE HUNT

Give the location of the world's largest source of:

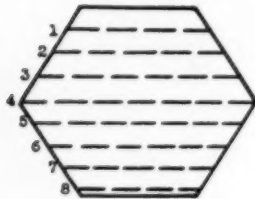
- |             |       |                      |       |
|-------------|-------|----------------------|-------|
| 1. Diamonds | _____ | 6. Cultivated pearls | _____ |
| 2. Emeralds | _____ | 7. Gold              | _____ |
| 3. Silver   | _____ | 8. Jade              | _____ |
| 4. Ivory    | _____ | 9. Radium            | _____ |
| 5. Platinum | _____ | 10. Natural pearls   | _____ |

Canada, Mexico, Belgian Congo, Colombia, China, Japan, Australia, Union of South Africa, Belgian Congo.



## G 27. SOME USEFUL PLANTS AND TREES

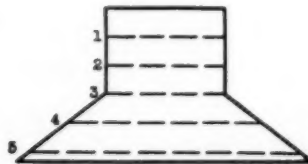
Where do our vegetable oils come from? Place a letter for each dash so as to spell the names of some of the world's chief vegetable oil bearing plants and trees described below.



1. Much used in paints
2. Edible oil of the Mediterranean region
3. By-product of our chief textile fiber plant
4. Tropic nut used for food and soap
5. Tropic tree yielding much oil from fruit
6. Its bean yields a remedy for children's complaints
7. Tapping this tree yields pitch for turpentine (plural)
8. Oriental oil tree recently introduced into southern U. S.

Coconut, Tung, Olive, Oilpalm, Flax, Cotton, Pines, Castor.

Fiber plants which provide us with clothing and twine.



1. Over the drygoods counter this, in manufactured form, is sold as "burlap."
2. A plant whose fibers are used largely for rope and twine.
3. Its fibers are prized for the making of shirts and collars.
4. Most of the world's cloth is made from this plant product.
5. American grain farmers use this made into binder twine.

Cotton, Flax, Henequin, Jute, Hemp.

## G 28. PLACE NAMES

Fill in the spaces with the name of an important river, city, country, etc., as indicated, whose initial letter is that at the top of the column.

## I

	D	A	N	C	E
RIVER					
COUNTRY					
CITY					

Naples, Elbe, Edinburgh, New Zealand, Canada, Chicago, Ecuador, Colorado, Denmark, Argentina, Arkansas, Danube, Denver, Annapolis, Nile.

## II

	L	A	K	E	S
RIVER					
CITY					
MOUNTAIN					

Sierra Nevada, Longs Peak, St. Lawrence, Loire, London, Stockholm, Everest, Euphrates, Alps, Amazon, Kiel, Antwerp, Kiolen, East St. Louis, Kanawha.

## III

	P	L	A	I	N
STATE					
SEA OR LAKE					
OCEAN, GULF OR BAY					

New York, Iowa, Antarctic, Louisiana, Pacific, Pennsylvania, Lyons, Alabama, Indian, New York, North, Placid, Irish, Ladoga, Adriatic.

# Pamphlet Material for Social Studies Courses

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One of the problems peculiar to the teaching of the social studies in high schools is that of securing useful and up-to-date reference material. In no other field of study do the basic facts require such frequent revision. Textbooks on social and economic problems become outdated almost as soon as published, and the teacher who is eager to keep himself and his pupils abreast of current developments is faced with a serious difficulty. The use of newspapers and magazines helps to some extent, especially in history courses, but the information gleaned from them is at best disjointed, ephemeral and undigested. Few schools are financially able to supply their social studies department with a library of current books on the many problems it is expected to investigate, and the facilities of the public library, if there is one, are not usually adequate or available for extended class use.

This difficulty, while common to all the social studies courses, is most serious in the study of current problems in the senior high school. Here the teacher is anxious to supply the class with the most recent and complete data available, so that the pupils may make a thorough analysis of the subject, and acquire some knowledge of source material. Textbooks alone are inadequate, and many schools supplement them with pamphlets on special topics, such as the series of *Public Affairs Pamphlets*, or with the unit booklets issued by many publishers. These are excellent, but the latter at least tend to become expensive if purchased for every problem and for each pupil.

There is one source of material, frequently neglected by social studies teachers, which meets all these requirements of authenticity, compactness, cheapness and currency. I refer to the hundreds of publications issued by the various agencies of the federal and state governments. An amazing quantity and variety of interesting source material may be had merely for the asking, and a great deal more is obtainable for purely nominal sums. There is scarcely a bureau or division of the federal government, for example, which does not publish some type of concise information about its work. Each agency is interested in obtaining as large an annual appropriation for its activities as possible, and hence is anxious to create a public awareness of its value and a public demand on Congress to increase its support. Pub-

licity therefore is as necessary to governmental agencies as to private business, and they are only too glad to present the story of their services as attractively as possible.

Let us suppose that a class in American problems is about to take up the study of conservation. During the past few years much has been done toward scientific flood control, prevention of soil erosion, improved forestry methods, and so forth. Do you know exactly what steps are being taken in these directions? Or, more important, do you have available interesting descriptions which your pupils can consult, and from which authoritative, up-to-date, and detailed reports can be made to the class? If not, then government publications will be a revelation. For example, the Tennessee Valley Authority at Knoxville will send you *Soil, the Nation's Basic Heritage*, a beautifully printed and illustrated pamphlet explaining in simple language the work that is being done to conserve the fertile soil against wasteful erosion. It will also send you a similar pamphlet on *Forests and Human Welfare*, that will show in fascinating picture and description the value of trees. From the Civilian Conservation Corps you can get two booklets, *Hands to Save the Soil*, and *Forests Protected by the CCC*, which are also attractive and very useful for class reports. The Forest Service of the Department of Agriculture publishes a well-illustrated booklet, *Living and Forest Lands*, as well as others, and in addition it has a pamphlet entitled *Material of Interest to Teachers*, which lists available charts, slides, leaflets, and other items pertaining to forestry. The National Park Service will send illustrated folders describing each of the more important national parks.

These are but a few of the more valuable and interesting materials on conservation to be obtained free from the federal government. To these may be added similar pamphlets put out by the appropriate departments of most state governments. In New Jersey, for example, the Department of Conservation and Development publishes leaflets on each state park and forest, as well as booklets on forestry matters. All these sources taken together supply a wealth of first-hand information that no quantity of textbooks or periodicals could possibly match.

What has been shown to be true of the one subject of conservation is equally true of many other topics.



Crime prevention, housing, social security, transportation, consumers' problems, child welfare, education and a dozen other problems studied in social science courses can all be enriched at little or no cost by letting the government tell your pupils what is going on. Moreover, information obtained from such sources brings an added sense of reality to the student; an actual government publication will seem more convincing and important to him than would the same facts read in a textbook.

Of course, the greater amount of governmental printed material is not primarily intended for educational or publicity purposes, and is too technical to be of use in schools. Most of the routine publications of the various departments are sold through the Government Printing Office at cost, but though much of it is of little general interest, there are occasionally items which can be of real value to the social studies class, and can be secured very cheaply. The Superintendent of Documents at the Government Printing Office will send free upon request a weekly list of all publications for sale. With the aid of this list, a useful reference shelf can be built up for the classroom at small cost.

There is, of course, much other pamphlet material useful for the social studies courses. Every teacher, probably, is familiar with the excellent series of *Public Affairs Pamphlets*, covering a wide range of problems in American life, and with the *Headline Books*, which deal primarily with various aspects of foreign affairs. They should be available in every high school. There are several means of keeping in touch with new pamphlet material. One is by the use of the *Vertical File Catalog Service*, published monthly by the H. W. Wilson Company, and similar in form to the *Readers Guide to Periodical Literature*. Another source is *The Pamphleteer Monthly*, published by the Pamphlet Distributing Company of New York.

Still another source of free reference material in pamphlet form is the private organization which is interested in reaching the public ear. Any national association with a product, a service, or a cause to promote is likely to have literature about it which

it will gladly send to teachers. While such material must be considered with caution, as being obviously propagandist in purpose, it can be made valuable to a course in American problems by reason of that very fact. Pupils need to be taught the difference between fact and argument.

The following list includes a few of the pamphlets on subjects other than conservation which are available from agencies of the federal government upon request. A suggestion that you be placed on the agency's mailing list will keep your pamphlet library up-to-date.

- Agricultural Adjustment Administration, *Planning for a Permanent Agriculture*.
- , *Achieving a Balanced Agriculture*.
- National Bureau of Standards, *Services of the National Bureau of Standards to the Consumer*.
- Federal Works Agency, Public Works Administration, *America Builds*. (300 page book on history of PWA.)
- United States Patent Office, *The Story of the American Patent System, 1790-1940*.
- , *Centennial Celebration of the American Patent System, 1836-1936*.
- Bureau of Prisons, *A Brief Account of the Penal and Correctional Activities of the Bureau of Prisons*.
- Bureau of Customs, *The Tariff and its History*.
- Department of the Interior, Division of Territories and Island Possessions, *Facts and Figures about the Philippines*.
- United States Office of Education, *Know Your School* (a series of excellent pamphlets under this general title).
- , *Elementary Education, 1930-1936*.
- , *Education in the United States of America*.
- National Youth Administration, *Meeting the Problems of Youth*.
- Federal Bureau of Investigation, *The Identification Facilities of the F.B.I.*
- , *Personnel Selection and Training in the F.B.I.*
- , *The Federal Bureau of Investigation*.

## Visual and Other Aids

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### SCHOOL PRODUCED MOTION PICTURES

The fact that desirable educational objectives can be achieved with the use of motion pictures in the social studies program is adequately recognized, at least in theory. However, the additional educational

advantages which can be derived from the actual production of motion pictures by the school has not yet received sufficient emphasis.

In producing a motion picture depicting some phase of school or community life pupils must of

necessity gain a rich variety of direct contacts with persons and agencies in their community. These contacts will take on greater meaning for the pupils than the average interview because they see the interview as a means of furthering their purpose. Conversely, those contacted by the pupils gain a better understanding of the pupils and a greater interest in the work of the school, thus promoting school-community cooperation. Studies have been made which tend to indicate that where students have assumed responsibility for producing a motion picture, the subject matter of the film has a marked effect upon their attitudes, beliefs and behavior. While the most valuable educational purposes are achieved in the actual producing of the film, the finished product, if well done, has a unique contribution to make to the community—that of showing a particular situation or problem in terms of the local conditions.

In making a motion picture the pupils develop the ability to work together to reach a common objective. Not only does this require group planning of technical and detailed materials but the pupils also must cooperatively determine the purpose which the film should achieve. In order to examine more thoroughly the possibilities of school-made movies let us focus our attention upon one activity of this kind.

The writer was privileged to observe a committee of members from the Hi-Y Club at North High School, Columbus, Ohio, produce a film on the housing problem in Columbus. The desire to produce such a motion picture originated within the club. The pupils wrote the scenario and borrowed equipment to film the picture.

The resulting film entitled "Tomorrow's Citizens" has a suitable musical background and a stimulating description and interpretation of the material portrayed. The film clearly and artistically shows the slum conditions of the city and also the results of these conditions such as child delinquency, high infant mortality rate, disease, and the added tax burden. The film thus forcefully presents the problem without offering a panacea.

It is of interest to note the pupils' evaluation of their project while keeping in mind the advantages claimed for school-made motion pictures as outlined above. The pupils in an informal discussion of their project expressed the following judgments:

Social problems, in this case, housing, are more complex than the pupils had realized from their classroom study.

They believe themselves to be more critical of commercial films from the technical, artistic and social points of view.

Careful planning and organization of a project are necessary for success.

Their interest is sustained in a particular

problem over a longer period of time than in former instances when the film situation was not present.

In their contact with city officials and technicians they gained a greater respect for the opinions of others.

They gained a more adequate knowledge of community resources and the functioning of governmental and semi-public agencies.

They believed that in the course of producing the film they had "learned to know people better."

One member of the committee attached great importance to the fact that a fellow-pupil working on the project gained self-confidence and successfully assumed responsibility when he had heretofore lacked self-confidence and had been irresponsible.

A much more thorough treatment of the values and methods of producing school-made motion pictures is given by William G. Hart and Roy Wenger of the Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, in a recently published booklet entitled *Making School Movies*.

In the first chapter of this publication the authors forcefully present the educational advantages of school-made movies. In the second chapter the authors discuss the production of twelve school films dealing with safety carried on under the auspices of the Ohio State University Traffic Safety Project. In the final chapter the twelve safety films produced are fully described and evaluated for school use.

In the third and fourth chapters they give an account of the types of films required and furnish an extensive list of traffic errors which should be depicted in films dealing with this topic. Plans are also given for the production of a school film, including technical problems involved. The net cost of this booklet is fifty cents and may be obtained by writing to the Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

#### NEWS NOTES

"Life at the Ohio Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home" is the name of a 16 mm. color film recently completed at the Xenia, Ohio, institution. The film shows the activities carried on by the pupils during a typical day at the Home. An attempt is made to show the spirit and philosophy which colors the program for the 630 boys and girls from the ages of four to eighteen who live there. The film is available for showing to social studies classes interested in the study of dependent children and institutional life, and may be obtained by writing to Superintendent F. R. Woodruff, The Ohio Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home, Xenia, Ohio.

The film was made as a part of an institutional survey under the direction of T. C. Holy, Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University. William G. Hart and Roy Wenger of the Bureau carried out the production activities.

A one reel film in color which shows the program of the Boys Industrial School at Lancaster, Ohio, is now available for use by educational and welfare groups. The plan used in making the film was to take a boy newly assigned to the institution and show him the various activities in which he may later participate. Thus the film gives an over-all view of the experiences provided for the boys at the school. Anyone interested in using the film in an educational program may obtain it by writing to Gerald Stahly, Director of Education, Boys Industrial School, Lancaster, Ohio.

*Subcontract Flicker.* "To publicize and emphasize

the value of subcontracting, the Office of Production Management has recently issued seven one-reel sound motion pictures which show some of the subcontracting work in various industries and tell about the Defense Contract Service. Prints are available from the Motion Picture Committee Cooperating for National Defense; from the Motion Picture Unit, Office of Emergency Management; and from the Defense Contract Service. Some educational film libraries also have them." (*Dun's Review*, New York, Vol. 49, July, 1941, p. 43.)

*Allegheny Ludlum Offers Use of Film on Steel in Defense.* "The Allegheny Ludlum Steel Corp., Oliver Building, Pittsburgh, will lend to outside groups a 16 mm., 800-ft. sound film, 'There's a job to be done,' dealing with stainless and special steels and their place in defense." (*Iron Age*, New York, Vol. 148, August 28, 1941, p. 99.)

## News and Comment

MORRIS WOLF

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### WORKING FOR DEMOCRACY

The Educational Policies Commission in its recent publication, *The Education of Free Men in American Democracy*, devotes a chapter to the obligations of government, teacher, and people to education in our democracy. Significant excerpts were given in *The Education Digest* for September, under the title, "Government, the Teacher, and the People."

Five obligations must be met by government to insure the education of free men. Government must provide a special authority to conduct the schools, in order to keep partisan politics out and to fit education to the abiding interests of society. The schools must be generously supported to insure to every child the full opportunity to develop his talents and capacities under well-trained teachers. Such teachers should be given security: economic, in tenure, and in teaching. The teacher, as a full-fledged citizen, should be protected from outside pressures. He should be expected to exercise fully his rights as a citizen, and special tribunals should be established to adjudicate grievances growing out of such exercise. The government, however, should keep its hands off the details of the educational program itself, making it the professional responsibility of school administrators and teachers.

The teacher, in turn, must be loyal to the democratic process, should exemplify democracy in his work and acts, and should be cognizant of the effects—social, political, moral—of his activities. He must strive to maintain and to raise the level of profes-

sional competence and should participate in shaping educational policies and programs in terms of the democratic ideal. "If the organized profession ever degenerates into a defender of its own vested interests, it will insure the bankruptcy of democratic education." In addition, the teacher should promote a condition of mutual understanding and trust with his community. He can not be some one apart, superior, or unconcerned about community problems and interests.

The public, too, has its responsibilities. It should seek to improve its understanding of the work of its schools and its relation to democracy. It must protect the schools and school people from attack by minority groups, and it must be sensitive to such attacks. But it must not seek to run the schools. Like teachers, the people must establish and maintain conditions of mutual trust and understanding with their schools.

Other excerpts from *The Education of Free Men in American Democracy* were given in the September issue of *The Journal* of the NEA, in a short article on "The Strategy of the Dictators." Here, concisely, were presented the eight steps by which dictators prepare a people for dictatorship, ease them into it, and keep them there. Over against their way were set four elements in the strategy of democracy to promote its way of life.

This issue of *The Journal* was chiefly concerned with the problem of democracy's defense and survival. "The Defense of Democracy thru Educa-



tion" summarized the reasons which led the Boston convention of the NEA, last summer, to establish its Commission on the Defense of Democracy thru Education. The personnel of the new commission is named and its activities are stated. In brief articles, Donald DuShane, retiring president of the association, John W. Studebaker, U. S. Commissioner of Education, and other prominent Americans discussed various aspects of the problem.

All this is, in a sense, an introduction to the article in *The Journal* on "Learning the Meaning of Democracy," by William G. Carr. Dr. Carr, associate secretary of the NEA, is also the secretary of the Educational Policies Commission. His article is the first of a series which will present materials useful to schools in their program of civic education. This first article of the series gave outlines of units actually in use in schools. From Des Moines there is a unit outline on "Democracy and Its Competitors"; from Oakland (Calif.), outlines on "Political Problems"; and from Eugene (Ore.), an outline of "Survey on School Democracy."

In the October issue, the second article of the series dealt with the problem of teaching responsibilities and privileges of citizenship.

*The Clearing House* for September and October, in a special section, reported actual cases of school activity, in school and out, which showed the democratic principle at work. In a crowded section of New York's Harlem, among poor people, high school girls initiated and carried through a school-community project which raised the housing standards of the neighborhood. Des Moines pupils in a junior high school studied their government by living it. For years, school children in Michigan have been providing officers to see to it that bus transportation works safely. In South Carolina the home economics work of a high school is carried into the homes, while the homes in turn use the school facilities.

*The Journal of Educational Sociology* plans, for the 1941-1942 season, to study problems confronting "Education During the War and After." In the October issue an overview of the whole problem was presented. In succeeding issues such subjects will be discussed as TVA, Civilian Morale, Women in National Defense, The School as a Defense Agency, Private Organizations in National Defense, Boom Towns of Defense, and the Social Impact of Military Defense. The journal will also carry reports of the United States Committee on Education Reconstruction.

#### DECLARATION OF THE ATLANTIC

The Atlantic Charter or Declaration of the Atlantic is provoking wide discussion and much speculation. The dramatic meeting of Roosevelt and Churchill, which resulted in the declaration, will

have many consequences, if Hitler is overthrown.

The distinguished editor of the London *Economist*, Geoffrey Crowther, wrote a British interpretation of the meaning of the Atlantic Charter, in *Foreign Affairs* for October. His article on "Anglo-American Pitfalls" warned against dangers inherent in the application of the charter's principles in the world of today.

While containing little that is new, Mr. Crowther pointed out, it was immensely significant as a declaration of world leadership by the two great English-speaking democracies. Their kind of ideas and aspirations are to be dominant. The place of birth of the charter was on no land. It was in the midst of the ocean, once barrier and now bond and highway. It implies an "Oceanic Commonwealth of Free Nations." It recognizes common needs and common responsibilities that must be shared. Aggression is denied. Personal freedom, social security, and unhampered commerce are affirmed as rights for all.

But can this avowal of policy be carried out in practice? When the pressures of war disappear, will the United States disavow her traditional policy of isolation and adopt cooperation in its place? Will Britain at the same time forget Continental politics and coalitions and think instead in terms of an Oceanic Commonwealth? These questions may be answered affirmatively provided the people in each nation realize their interdependence as nations and are willing to tolerate each other's necessary national differences for the sake of the over-arching unity. The problem of unity, when differences cut a chasm in the structure of oneness, was familiar in this country before the Civil War. Anglo-American differences today are no less deep. Is the will to preserve union stronger than the divisive force of differences?

Mr. Crowther points out several post-war problems where differences of view must be resolved into unity. How shall a defeated Germany be treated? What about tariff barriers? How shall exchange be controlled? What about trade competition in world markets? What leaders propose may be very differently disposed by the people.

Anglo-American differences will not be solved merely by devising constitutional machinery. Such machinery did not prevent the American Civil War nor World War II. Free and frank discussion of problems, with all the cards on the table, should be very helpful. An indispensable aid is full and ceaseless use of publicity to keep everyone fully informed. The justice of the views of those who differ with us must be made clear. The formulae for reconciling conflicting views and solving problems must be expounded. The values of public knowledge are not yet appreciated deeply enough to make leaders of democracy use all the avenues of communication thoroughly and continuously to educate the public,

as the totalitarian leaders have used them to indoctrinate their people.

The Roosevelt-Churchill declaration reared no edifice of peace with freedom, but provided only a sketchy blueprint of the structure.

#### POST-WAR RECONSTRUCTION

Anxious to avoid the errors of reconstruction which were made after World War I, thoughtful men are now mulling over the problems we shall face after the defeat of nazism. A group of educators from our own land and abroad met last summer in Michigan and prepared a "Proposal to Men of Good Will for Educational Reconstruction After the War." It is of such interest to teachers that *The Education Digest* gave it as the leading article of its September issue.

Education is described as being much broader than schooling. Plans for its reconstruction after the war must be made in terms of all phases of American life. Such reconstruction must get at the causes of the world-wide disease of which Hitlerism is a symptom. The Proposal affirmed twelve aims as guides for developing a program. These aims included recognition of human dignity and worth, and the right to equal educational opportunity for all human beings to develop their capacities and talents. They stressed the need for training, including vocational, which will help each to render his maximum social service. Nearly half the principles bore directly on the role of man in a democratic society as an on-going process which inevitably changes and is capable of being improved.

The Proposal also suggested specific means to implement these aims and described ways in which schools could assist other social agencies in bringing them to fruition. The fine tone of the whole document is illustrated by this declaration: "To develop, men need action; to act, men need faith; to keep faith, men need reason; to direct all three, men need a vision of excellence; and all this is empty unless it is pervaded by love; and love is action and outgoing."

#### SCHOOLS AND PAN-AMERICANISM

No mean aid to cementing Pan-American unity is the classroom. To promote it, the Department of Secondary Teachers, NEA, recently set up a Committee on Inter-American Relations, under the chairmanship of Joshua Hochstein of the Evander Childs High School of New York City.

The objectives of the committee are: (1) to establish courses, in secondary schools, on Latin-American history and inter-American relations; (2) to unify the numberless Pan-American clubs into a national student movement to promote inter-American unity; (3) to act as a clearing house for all who

desire information, materials, and guidance in this work; (4) and to cooperate with the various national organizations now promoting better inter-American relations through school activities.

The public schools, by reaching children early, can do the most effective work in breaking down prejudices and in cultivating appreciation of the achievements of our neighbors. Americans have never been so conscious that their nationalism is not merely national but hemispheric. This committee is an answer to a call especially urgent now. Its headquarters are at 800 East Gun Hill Road, New York City.

#### EDUCATION AND LABOR

President William Green of the American Federation of Labor wrote on "Labor's Philosophy of Education" in the September issue of *The Nation's Schools*. His short statement gives the position of the Federation and will be approved by teachers. The Federation objects to narrowly vocational education and asks for cultural education for all in the secondary school. Vocational specialization should be deferred until youth have the necessary maturity for intelligent choice. "Broad basic education," meanwhile, should equip all to adjust themselves to those changes which are ceaselessly altering both industries and occupations.

Experience, said President Green, shows that youth with academic training hold jobs better and make more sustained progress than their brothers who may, because of vocational training, find jobs more quickly. Modern industry requires training in the basic sciences, something the old apprentice training could not provide, and the schools can.

Mr. Green sums up the thought of labor by saying: "We have reason to know how unequal educational opportunities create unbridgeable gulfs between groups and handicap individuals for life. We want more education in order to be better workers and in order to share in material progress and to live more satisfying lives as citizens." That last sentence is a big package.

#### ANCIENT EGYPTIAN LIFE

Teachers and pupils will rave over the story of life in ancient Egypt which occupied most of the September number of *The National Geographic Magazine*. It is useless to try to convey the effect of this remarkable presentation. Of sixty-six illustrations showing all aspects of Egyptian life, thirty-two are colored reproductions of paintings by the artist, H. M. Herget. Accompanying each painting is a full page description. William C. Hayes of the Metropolitan Museum of Art contributed the article on "Daily Life in Ancient Egypt."

All teachers are alive to the merits of *The Na-*

*tional Geographic Magazine*. This story sets a new level of achievement. To see it is to want to own it.

#### CRIME PROBLEM

More and more the public is becoming aware of the fact that the causes of criminal behavior are complicated beyond the imaginings of earlier men. Behavior within the law may do more damage socially than behavior called criminal by the law. Similar causes prompt one man to behave criminally and another to behave within the law. So complex are the roots and conditions of so-called criminal behavior that the criminologist must also be a biologist, a social scientist, a psychologist, and a physician.

The September issue of *The Annals* of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, on "Crime in the United States," will be welcomed by teachers. Its purpose is "to understand the basic patterns of causation underlying criminal conduct." Eighteen students discussed as many aspects of crime, including the statistics and facts of crime, law enforcement, crime prevention, crime here and abroad, among young people and adults, among Negroes and immigrants, the social consequences of crime, and crime as viewed by the biologist, the psychologist, the psychiatrist, and the sociologist.

#### FOR THE TEACHER

In October, the National Geographic Society, Washington, D.C., resumed publication of its well-known *Geographic School Bulletins*. These have been appearing since the close of World War I. Issued for thirty weeks, a set of five each week, the bulletins summarize in word and picture geographic information sifted from the mass that streams constantly into the Society from all parts of the world.

The latest changes in national boundaries, discoveries, new industries, cultural developments, and other current geographic events are set forth as up-to-date supplements of the textbooks. The bulletins are for the use of teachers, librarians, and students in higher institutions, at a cost of twenty-five cents for the year.

The British Library of Information, at 620 Fifth Avenue, New York City, is maintained by the British government as a center of public information about British affairs. The library contains books, pamphlets, official documents, magazines, clippings, films, and other materials which supply information about current political affairs and economic and social developments in the British Empire.

The British Library of Information issues periodically "Bulletins from Britain" and publishes a series of Information Papers on topics such as the British system of social security, trade unionism, air-raid precautions, and the text of notable addresses. Much

of the material is available free.

In *High Points* for September, Alfred Kirshner of De Witt Clinton High School, New York City, described eight lessons in a unit on the race question, as "A Scientific Approach to the Development of Tolerance." His detailed account of what went on in the classroom is helpful to anyone working on this subject.

*Free World* made its appearance this fall as a new monthly dealing with international affairs. It is an anti-fascist magazine edited by such distinguished people as Norman Angell, Walter Millis, Freda Kirchwey, Pierre Cot, Chin Meng, and Alvarez del Vayo. Liberal and democratic, the new periodical is of interest to teachers.

The Teaching Material Service has many picture charts useful for classes in history, geography, and civic problems. The charts vary in size, but each offers many pictures on a given subject. The cost is usually a fraction of a dollar. Address inquiries to The Teaching Material Service, Pleasantville, N.Y.

"A Substitute for Imperialism" was the sixth and last of the series of editorials in *The New Republic* which studied economic aspects and possibilities of the war and the post-war period. In the issue of September 8, the editors proposed a substitute for plans for Anglo-American leadership of the nations of the world. They offer no grandiose schemes. What they propose are steps to take, in view of existing conditions and social machinery, to insure economic security and raise the standard of living in the less fortunate areas of the world. The other editorials in this series were named in this department, last month.

In June it was announced by its editor that *Events* was taking over *Current History and Forum*. In September the new magazine, a monthly called *Current History*, appeared, reduced to pocket size like *Events*, but one hundred pages long. Its policy is "to provide an independent and non-partisan monthly review of world affairs that is authoritative, that sticks to the facts, and that is ready to consider all points of view." In order to interest classes, special rates, and supplementary materials, tests, and study guides are offered to students of the social studies. Address inquiries to *Current History*, 157 Chambers Street, New York City.

Under the title, "The Forgotten T.N.E.C.," Professor Jerome B. Cohen of the College of the City of New York gave a useful summary of the work of the famous Temporary National Economic Committee, in *Current History* for September. Professor Cohen reviewed the reasons for the work of the committee and then summarized its findings under nineteen heads and its recommendations under twenty heads. His article is a valuable aid for classes studying social problems.



## CULTURAL OLYMPICS

Cultural Olympics, the arts program fostered by the University of Pennsylvania, has become an important element in the cultural life of our eastern seaboard. Its encouragement of talent among children and youth is bearing valuable artistic fruit. Designed to find and develop such talent, it makes no charges and holds no competitions for prizes. On the radio, in public auditoriums, and in exhibitions, individuals and groups have opportunity to present their art to the public. By Certificates of Merit, scholarships, and other means, artistic superiority is recognized and opportunities given for the further cultivation of artistic gifts.

The program of exhibitions this season extends from October 25 to May 30 and includes the dance, drama, music, graphic and plastic arts and crafts, and speech and literature. Special programs in these fields will be held occasionally throughout the school year. Schools and other groups interested in the arts unprofessionally are invited to become acquainted with Cultural Olympics. The invitation is limited to Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Maryland, and Delaware. Inquiries should be addressed to Dr. Frederick C. Gruber, Director of Cultural Olympics, Bennett Hall, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.

## MEETINGS

On October 10, a joint meeting of the Long Island Social Studies Teachers Association and the Long Island Zone of the New York State Teachers Association was held at Westbury. The principal subject of the conference was "Evaluating the Social Studies Program Outlined in Bulletin 2," the new state program for social studies. Professor How-

ard Anderson of Cornell University made the principal address.

The fall conference of the National Council for the Social Studies will be held on November 20-22, in Indianapolis (Ind.).

Supplementing the usual program of addresses, panel discussions, and visual-aids demonstrations, there will be two novel features this year: (1) seventeen simultaneous seminar study groups on practical classroom problems in teaching the social studies; and (2) a symposium on citizenship education sponsored jointly by the National Council and the National Foundation for Education in American Citizenship.

David Cushman Coyle, author of *America* and numerous other widely read books, will address a general session on the subject of strengthening national morale. Paul Hanna, Ralph Tyler, Fremont P. Wirth, Edgar B. Wesley, and Erling M. Hunt are among the other speakers. Attention will also be focused on the presentation and appraisal of the newly published *Twelfth Yearbook* of the Council, *The Social Studies in the Elementary School*.

Information about the meetings may be had from the Council at 1201 Sixteenth Street Northwest, Washington, D.C.

At the same time, in Atlantic City, the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools will hold its annual meetings. In conjunction with it, on Saturday, the Middle States Association of History and Social Science Teachers will convene in a morning conference, followed by a luncheon. The topic for the forenoon session is "The International Situation." Following the luncheon Dr. Solon J. Buck, National Archivist, will speak.

## Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edited by RICHARD HEINDEL  
University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia

*The Social Relations of Science.* By J. G. Crowther.  
New York: The Macmillan Company, 1941.  
Pp. xxxii, 665. \$3.50.

This book can perhaps be most accurately described as an account, based on historical materials, of the influence of social conditions on the rate and direction of development of science. More broadly, it concerns itself with certain aspects of the interrelations of science and society. The range of coverage is even greater than indicated by the above statement, however, for the book actually proceeds as if the word "science" were used in the generic sense, tracing as it does the growth of knowledge of na-

tural phenomena rather than restricting itself to science in the narrower usage of the word. Consistent with this interpretation, the beginnings of science are traced back towards the beginnings of knowledge instead of being sought for in the technical advances of the last few centuries.

The result is essentially a history of science, resembling in scope and treatment a Wellsian outline of history, and containing a range of material somewhat in proportion to the subject itself. Because of this breadth of coverage, the material cannot be reviewed critically except here and there, but fuller comment can be made on the method, presenta-

tion and general scope of the work.

The author, identified in the publisher's statement as scientific correspondent of the *Manchester Guardian* and an occasional lecturer in the United States, introduces his work with the defensible accusation that "many historians are now permanently inhibited from drawing conclusions from their studies," and goes on to argue effectively that synthesis is needed as well as analysis. It is presumably this principle that he puts to practice in his history of science, and here we would wish him success, but some questions are raised by certain of the details of the treatment.

For one thing, it is not always easy to differentiate between synthesis and popularization. In the case of the present work, for example, it is not entirely clear for what level of reader it is written, nor by what standards it should be judged. At many points it appears to be written more for the general reading public than for a professional audience. This is no fundamental criticism of the book itself, for the author is of course free to write at whatever level he chooses, but the attempt at synthesis also leads to other difficulties. Of these, the principal one from the reader's point of view is the impossibility of telling where the author is proceeding on a basis of solid evidence and where he is on the less certain ground of probability or plausibility. For example, when he writes of the New Stone Age that: "The invention of pots had profound effects on human life. Cooking was transformed, and a variety of nourishing, economical and delicious new soups were invented," it is clear that this is more synthesis than history. A few pages later, however, when it is stated that: "The demand for precious stones and other magical objects led to the invention of trade," the critical reader begins to take alarm at the lack of any clear differentiation between fact and conjecture. The reader's doubts are increased by the lack of any distinction between the two in form of statement, and by the almost complete absence of any specific references to sources or evidence.

These difficulties largely disappear, however, when the account progresses into the historical period. Very readable brief surveys are given of the development of Greek, Roman and Arabic science, and of the laying of the foundations of modern science in more recent periods. Brief biographical sketches are given of the lives of several pioneers of science, and an excellent conception is given of the accumulative process through which modern science developed. For the most recent period the pattern of development is necessarily less clear, and the account becomes more topical though apparently adequate.

E. P. HUTCHINSON

Library of Congress  
Washington, D.C.

*Horatio Gates: Defender of American Liberties.* By Samuel White Patterson. New York: Columbia University Press, 1941. Pp. xi, 466. \$4.25.

Having examined impartially a wealth of hitherto untouched original sources here and abroad, including rare manuscripts owned by the distinguished Dr. A. S. W. Rosenbach, Professor Patterson explodes existing slanderous tradition and establishes that Horatio Gates is one of the Fathers of the American Republic. With this, Professor Allan Nevins of Columbia and Oxford heartily concurs, in the foreword.

Devoted to American principles, Gates contributed invaluable services as organizer, administrator and humane military disciplinarian. With little justification his critics blame the victor of Saratoga for his disaster at Camden and for participation in the Conway Cabal. Gates' short-comings are as forthrightly admitted as his virtues. Among the latter one notes steadfastness, magnanimity, and social perfectionism. In his social views, especially, Gates exemplifies American political philosophy.

Washington paid this tribute to Gates, his trusted friend:

Although I often wished in secret, that you could be brought to resume the Office of Adjutant General, I never even hinted it, because I thought it might be disagreeable to you.

It is a rare intellectual treat to find sound history expressed in such animated prose. Narrative is colorful, descriptions are vivid and conclusions definitely drawn. Brief pen portraits restore flesh and blood to Revolutionary worthies. The zest and enthusiasm of the author's happy and vigorous style make reading this important study a genuine pleasure. Illustrations, in excellent taste, include reproductions of portraits by Stuart and Trumbull.

ROSEBUD TESCHNER SOLIS-COHEN  
Philadelphia, Pa.

*The Last Frontier.* By Howard Fast. New York: Duell, Sloan and Pearce, 1941. Pp. xii, 307. \$2.50.

The novel under review deserves the credit of being quite as accurate as many history books. "All of the principal characters in the story, with the exception of Captain Murray, are persons who lived and played their parts much as I have detailed here" (p. 303). So much for the truthfulness of this account of one of the dramatic events in the history of the American West—the flight of the Cheyennes under Dull Knife from Indian Territory to their former home in the Black Hills in 1878.

The ethics of the matter cannot be made a subject of discussion within the space of a review. Carl Schurz stated his view when he said that freedom "meant the right of any man to choose death to

? *Have you seen these three*

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By Hans Christian Adamson. Paralleling the 1941-42 broadcasts of the CBS *New Horizons* programs of the School of the Air of the Americas, this book contains a wealth of historical background material highlighting the lives and deeds of the men who brought civilization to the western world. Educational edition, \$2.75.

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slavery" (p. 110)—that is, free doom—and applied the doctrine thus enunciated to the Indians. The legality of the procedure might likewise involve lengthy argument. Suffice it to say that the narrative centers around two focal points. First, the flight of a Cheyenne band from its legally authorized reservation; secondly, the jurisdictional conflict between the military and civil authorities—between the War Department and the Interior Department.

The first gives all the chance that an author could desire for the dramatic. Mr. Fast proves himself an excellent narrator by keeping within reasonable limits material that might easily degenerate into a typical "wild western."

In the reviewer's opinion the second point—the conflict between the military and civil authorities—is of greater importance. In constant interdepartmental wrangling lay opportunity for much of the corruption, blame for much of the inefficiency, and responsibility for the tragic fate that overtook, not the Cheyennes only, but the vast majority of the Indian tribes during the last third of the nineteenth century.

In view of this fact it would have contributed to a better proportioned view had the author placed greater emphasis upon the characters and activities of the various men connected with the Office of Indian Affairs and the Department of the Interior.

Certainly agent Miles and Carl Schurz suffer by comparison with Captain Murray—the one wholly fictitious character in the book—or Wessells or Sherman.

Extracts from contemporary newspapers have been used extensively and effectively, as also personal recollections of older members of the Cheyenne tribe. One wonders whether the tale would have been improved by drawing upon the manuscripts in the Office of Indian Affairs or the War Department.

Be that as it may, the fact remains that Mr. Fast has produced a really good novel, deserving the thoughtful consideration of every student of the history of the American Indian.

ALBAN W. HOOPES

Spring Mill, Pa.

*Corner Druggist.* By Robert B. Nixon, Jr. New York: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1941. Pp. 291. \$2.50.

This book merits consideration because of the real picture of American life it presents of the late 1880's and first thirty-five years of the present century. This view is given through the eyes of the "Corner Druggist," who saw humanity at its worst and best in traffic neighborhoods, tenderloin drug stores, and neighborhood pharmacies. The book is packed with incidents which will pull the heart



strings, hold interest, and give one a good laugh in these days when laughter is needed. The book is also the story of a friend, advisor and confessor, who incidentally tried to apply the principles of Christianity and socialism to every-day life. How successful he was, only a reading of the volume will disclose. *Corner Druggist* is not merely the story of a fiery, but lovable character; it is the colorful picture of the American way of life in its parade from the gas-light era into the glare of neon lights.

ROBERTA N. ROGERS

Temple University  
Philadelphia, Pa.

*Organized Anti-Semitism in America: The Rise of Group Prejudice During the Decade 1930-40.* By Donald S. Strong. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Public Affairs, 1941. Pp. iv, 180. \$2.50.

Dr. Strong has given us a fine picture of the rise of group prejudice in the United States during the decade, 1930-40. Living in a section of New York City that is dominated by one of these pressure groups, the reviewer can appreciate the author's well documented work.

As the author makes clear in his opening chapter, this study is not interested in anti-Semitism as such, but in hatred that is based on the premise that all Jews are revolutionists bent on changing the present social order. He calls this peculiar type of anti-Semitism, "the anti-revolutionary, anti-Semitic ideology." Using this as the pivot around which his study moves, the author carries us into the story of anti-Semitism in Poland, Germany, Russia, France and England.

Dr. Strong evolves three prerequisites for successful anti-Semitic moves in any country: a revolutionary threat, national humiliation, and profound economic distress. There may be variations of these but at least two factors must be present to make the move successful. Dr. Strong demonstrates that the lack of these factors in England has caused the failure of Sir Oswald Mosley's fascist movement. In speaking of the collapse of the Mosley program, the author makes mention of the absence of an anti-Semitic tradition in England. Agreeing that England in recent times has shown no anti-Semitism, one cannot forget the expulsion of the Jews under Edward I.

The remainder of the study is devoted to a complete explanation of some of the more important of the "anti-revolutionary, anti-semitic groups," among which are the German American Bund, the Christian Front, and the Silver Shirts. Dr. Strong discusses each of these from their foundation to their present importance, with biographical sketches of their leaders.

The study concludes that the Jew, who makes up

only 3.69 per cent of our population, has nothing to fear in the United States where the words "freedom" and "liberty" have true meanings and are not disguises for intolerance.

JAMES J. FLYNN

Bishop Loughlin High School  
Brooklyn, New York

*The Prison Community.* By Donald Clemmer. Boston: The Christopher Publishing House, 1940. Pp. xi, 341. \$4.00.

This is easily one of the best pieces of work that has yet appeared on the prison as a community. In fact, it is an excellent study of institutional life and the social processes which affect, influence, shape and, in a sense, determine the future lives of men confined in a large penitentiary. Mr. Clemmer, for many years the sociologist in one of the state prisons of Illinois, gives clear evidence of a thorough grasp of the processual development of social relationships and has the gift of clarity of presentation. Where 2500 men of varying ages, interests, backgrounds, attitudes, and personality characteristics are confined for years in the artificial atmosphere of rules and regulations a unique culture will result. The author analyzes the fundamental bases of prison culture and paints a careful and dramatic portrait of the effects of interpersonal relationships among the inhabitants of the walled town. The formation of primary group relationships, the emergence of leaders among prisoners, the operation of various forms of social control, the problem of constructive use of leisure time, the everlasting problem of homosexuality, the role of labor in the rehabilitation of the convict, all emerge to combine into an integrated and unified process which Mr. Clemmer calls "prisonization." This reviewer is of the opinion that this book is easily the finest example of correction or penal sociology that has ever been produced by an American sociologist.

J. P. SHALLOO

University of Pennsylvania  
Philadelphia, Pa.

*The Child Speaks: The Prevention of Juvenile Delinquency.* By Jacob Panken. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1941. Pp. ix, 345. \$2.50.

From his long experience as judge of the Children's Court in New York City, Justice Panken sets forth his theory of delinquency and his program of prevention. He has found in the thousands of cases passing before him the constant factor of neglect and inadequacy of parents and intelligent use of social resources. He emphasizes the necessity for intelligent guidance which permits the child considerable latitude of choice but always within reasonable limits so that interests may be directed

largely by the child but always as defined by the community. If we are to be successful in handling the problem of delinquency we must try to understand the situation as the child understands it. Sex problems must be faced with the same casual and unemotional attitude displayed toward the problem of finding a job. Families with no interest in reading or other cultural pursuits which enlarge the social horizon or contribute to the moral sense are likely to have a disproportionate number of delinquents. This can be corrected by a more careful selection of leisure time activities such as movies, radio programs and reading material. After learning the kind of entertainment the child prefers Justice Panken attempts to provide a book list which will appeal to the delinquent. A report or review of the book by the boy or girl stimulates further interest in reading the better types of literature and this tends to change the attitudes through emulation of outstanding characters, historical and fictional. This kind of book therapy actually works, according to Justice Panken, and all those interested in children's problems might well give serious attention to this type of leisure time program. The book as a whole is a sane and intelligent contribution to the literature of juvenile delinquency.

J. P. SHALLOO

University of Pennsylvania  
Philadelphia, Pa.

*State of the Masses.* By Emil Lederer. New York: W. W. Norton and Co., 1940. Pp. 245. \$2.50.

This posthumously published book by the former dean of the Graduate Faculty of Political and Social Science, perhaps better known as the "University in Exile," is an illuminating analysis of the contemporary dictator-state and a confession of the changes this unique phenomenon has forced him to make in his social philosophy. Much has been done by other German exiles—how tragic it is that they failed to see the danger before 1933 and did so little to awaken their own people!—to reveal the menace to western civilization that is Hitler and national socialism. This philosophical inquiry is not less frightening in its conclusions, because the danger is not so clearly identified with the variable fortunes of an individual.

It is the masses, defined as the multitude more or less permanently fused into unity by powerful and frequently stimulated emotions, that the author regards as the foundation of the dictator-state and for the first time in history as the source of its power. With the coming into being of the masses, society, as we know it, disappears, and with it are destroyed or are used as tools its component groups and institutions. Liberty dies with society. The author is concerned only with fascism and national so-



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cialism but there is no reason to doubt that the same conclusions would result from a similar analysis of the bolshevist dictatorship. That the mass-state possesses the elements of permanence he does not believe. He expected a gradual petrification of the bureaucracy to set in if the nazi state had remained within its ethnic boundaries, and with a conquered empire to rule and exploit—the book was completed after the absorption of Czechoslovakia and before the beginning of the war—he thought that these gratifications would eventually cause the nazis to turn their backs upon the masses. Meanwhile, however, "the world is headed for another age of slavery" unless the mass-state is crushed in a war not for democracy "but for something more concrete: the existence of society and private life."

In the light of this reading of the world crisis, it is fairly obvious what changes the author found it necessary to make in his moderately Marxian social philosophy. The classless society, the traditional ideal of socialism, he now regards as at best a meaningless utopia and at worst the death of liberty because it is inseparable from the mass-state. Liberty becomes the highest good, and the class struggle, restrained by a more highly developed sense of social unity, its most effective guarantee. "We must choose," he concludes, "between the mass-state and society, between enslavement and liberty." It is clear that

this book should be widely read and especially by teachers and students of the social sciences.

E. MALCOLM CARROLL

Duke University  
Durham, N.C.

*Toward Freedom: The Autobiography of Jawaharlal Nehru.* New York: The John Day Company, 1941. Pp. xvii, 445. Illustrated. \$4.00.

The reader will get a vital impression of the Indian national movement, if not a clear historical account. Above all he will encounter a total man writing of himself without sham, and inspiring unprejudiced thought. Nehru's "freedom" reaches out to all Asia, and to all those in the world who will have it. He is the most intense Indian, and also the outstanding democrat of the world today.

England's failure in India is fairly analyzed by Nehru. After the reply of August 8, 1940 of the British government, couched in the old language of imperialism, to the moderate proposal of the Congress for a working means of cooperation, Nehru showed disheartenment. He has always been remarkably fair in his estimate of the British, and probably had hoped for some show of intelligence. His final words are: "For even in this present of war and peril, there is no change in the manner of treatment accorded our people by British imperialism. Let those who seek the favor and protection of this imperialism go its way. We go ours. The parting of the ways has come." In the fall of last year, shortly after writing these words, he was returned to jail where he has spent about half of the effective years of his life, and where he wrote most of this book, to prevent mental disintegration and to help himself to think straight. The joys and sorrows of his own personal life together with those of all India in its struggle, particularly during the past twenty years, move straight on in fascinating style. His is no meandering treatment, but a clear statement of India's case, her economic condition, his own socialist position, the communal strife between Hindu and Moslem and between these and other groups, and the effective work of his colleagues. Outstanding among them is Gandhi. The explanation of Nehru's attitude toward his beloved leader and frequent opponent is perhaps the shrewdest estimate of that man in print.

As one reads this American edition, one feels that Nehru has written for an informed reader, and although the impressions are clear the facts seem sometimes to involve a *non sequitur*. The fault is most frequently with the American publisher who has deleted not only portions of chapters but also parts of paragraphs and sentences of the original without always providing a logical sequence.

However, better than any other book, this one can inform the western mind. It should reach the

widest possible audience. From the West, India has learned about science, socialism, cooperation, "and service to the community for the common good." From India we can learn again about freedom.

HORACE I. POLEMAN

Library of Congress  
Washington, D.C.

*Patterns of Workers' Education: The Story of the Bryn Mawr Summer School.* By Florence H. Schneider. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Public Affairs, 1941. Pp. 148. \$2.00.

The Bryn Mawr Summer School for Women Workers in Industry was founded in 1921. This was to be an experiment in workers' education but now, twenty years later, it has become a thriving, established, recognized institution. Dr. Schneider's thorough study is the outcome of a survey started in 1938.

While the Bryn Mawr project is a great step forward in adult education, it is the logical outcome of a movement that started within industry itself early in the twentieth century. The great trade unions of the nation as early as 1913 began their instruction by a system of "mass education." Mass education was used just to acclimate the usual run of industrial worker to a system of "classroom education." This was usually accomplished by cultural performances for all the workers, or by labor movies shown at local meetings. It might have appeared as a crude beginning, but it has borne fruit as is testified by the number of courses now conducted at Brwn Mawr.

Adult education for industrial workers has not been lacking outside the labor movement. The Young Women's Christian Association, the National Federation of Settlements and the Works Projects Administration have all contributed their share of courses for the woman in industry.

Women have become a vital part of our industrial development and as such must receive a training that will fit them to play their role well. This study by Dr. Schneider gives us an absorbing view of exactly how our women are being trained to do their jobs better so that America as a whole may benefit.

JAMES J. FLYNN

Bishop Loughlin High School  
Brooklyn, New York

*Federal Administrative Proceedings.* By Walter Gellhorn. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1941. Pp. 144. \$2.00.

This small volume is another addition to the rapidly increasing literature on the administrative agency. There is a rising crescendo of debate in which expanding administrative power is viewed either as a threat to democracy or as the inevitable modern



solution to the problem of making democracy efficient enough to survive. Gellhorn in the brief compass of this book makes a strong case for refusing to fear the growth of administrative power at the expense of parliamentary institutions or the courts.

JOHN PERRY HORLACHER

University of Pennsylvania  
Philadelphia, Pa.

## TEXTBOOK AND OTHER TEACHING AIDS

*Our Nation.* By Eugene C. Barker and Henry S. Commager. Evanston, Ill.: Row, Peterson and Company, 1941. Pp. lviii, 974. Illustrated. \$2.48.

Author, publisher, and artist have joined hands in producing this unusually fine textbook. The durable and admirably simple binding will meet with the teacher's approval, while the student will be attracted by the clear print and the wealth of carefully chosen illustrative material. Also noteworthy are the interesting pictorial comparisons and the numerous maps which emphasize a single feature.

Perhaps *Our Nation* will be considered unwieldy by some, for it somewhat exceeds the length of the ordinary American history. The additional pages, however, enable the authors to clarify many concepts. Each of the nine unit-divisions opens with a preview and closes with a review of important points. Chapters are preceded by extensive outlines and are concluded with summaries. No unit is of awkward length. The careful planning and the originality displayed in other parts of the book are not evident in the questions and activities at the ends of units.

The organization of material is sufficiently different from the usual text to warrant comment. The westward movement, for example, is not treated as a separate topic, but is rather skillfully fitted into other units. Particular emphasis is placed upon the social and economic aspects of American history. One of the most valuable units in the book is that dealing with the adjustment of American society to the new era. Such topics as "Religion in Our Changing Society," "The Rise of the City," and "The Motion Picture and the Radio" are fully treated. The authors have shown skill in weaving political history into the body of paragraphs, rather than giving it undue emphasis. Little mention is made of the military aspects of war, but the social and economic causes and results are stressed.

The source material included in the body of each chapter is excellent. The selections are, for the most part, graphic, and they should stimulate interest in supplementary reading and research.

E. B. FINCHER

Westwood High School  
Westwood, N.J.

*Main Currents in Modern Economic Life.* By Horace Taylor and Associates. Vols. I and II. New York: Harcourt Brace and Company, 1941. Pp. xi, 557; viii, 548. \$2.50 each.

These two volumes have "grown out of long experience with the sophomore year of the course in Contemporary Civilization in Columbia College. For elementary study of economics in college, it is designed to take the place of *Contemporary Economic Problems and Trends*" by the same authors. The work is the result of much collaboration and is carefully edited. It includes an analytical description of economic institutions in operation together with a treatment of these institutions according to the economic and political elements they contain. It is organized around the operations of the market. Both books are printed by the offset process; the binding is attractive; and the format is good.

*Man, the Nature Tamer: From Cave Man to American Citizen.* By Richard H. Nida and Fay Adams. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1941. Pp. vii, 423. Illustrated. \$1.64.

*Man, the Nature Tamer* is "an integration of history, geography, science, invention, and civics." It is one of the newer type texts that provides for motivation and attempts to build on the daily experiences of the pupils. Attention has been paid to vocabulary level and to simplicity of presentation. The narrative is in double columns; the illustrations are clear and well selected.

## CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

*The Clarks: An American Phenomenon.* By William D. Mangam. New York: Silver Bow Press, 1941. Pp. ix, 257. \$2.50.

A biting social document based on the life and family of William A. Clark, mine owner and millionaire.

*We Hold Those Truths.* Stuart G. Brown, ed. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1941. Pp. vi, 351. \$1.25.

A well-chosen collection of the documents of American democracy—and good models of prose. Particularly useful for school libraries.

*Mars' Butterfly.* By Henry Pleasants, Jr. Boston: The Christopher Publishing House, 1941. Pp. 476. \$3.50.

An absorbing tale about the versatile John André, British spy-extraordinary in the American Revolution, with emphasis on the sinister character of Benedict Arnold.

*The Child Speaks: The Prevention of Juvenile Delinquency.* By Justice Jacob Panken. New York:

Henry Holt & Company, 1941. Illustrated. Pp. ix, 345. \$2.50.

Important account of the methods of Justice Panken of New York who contends the delinquent child is usually fundamentally normal, but warped by neglect.

*A Short History of Ancient Civilization.* By Tom B. Jones. New York: Harper and Brothers. 1941. Pp. xiii, 378. Illustrated. \$2.25.

A text focusing on the causes of general cultural developments, growth and decline. Well-integrated and well suited for teachers who do not want an encyclopedic text.

*Fearless Advocate of the Right: The Life of Francis Julius LeMoyne, M.D., 1789-1879.* By Margaret C. McCulloch. Boston: The Christopher Publishing House, 1941. Pp. 279. \$2.00.

Pleasing portrait of an active worker in negro advancement.

*Thus be their Destiny.* By J. H. Atwood and Others. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1941. Pp. xi, 96. 75 cents.

The personality development of Negro youth in three small cities, a study continuing an important project of the American Youth Commission.

*The Social Policy of Nazi Germany.* By C. W. Guillebaud. Cambridge: at the University Press, 1941. Pp. 134. \$1.25.

A partial explanation of the means used to claim and receive support of the German people.

*Rod of Iron: The Absolute Rulers of England.* By Milton Waldman. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1941. Pp. vii, 274. Illustrated. \$3.50.

A penetrating account of Henry VIII, Elizabeth and Cromwell.

*General Washington's Correspondence concerning the Society of Cincinnati.* By Lt. Col. Edgar E. Hume, ed. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1941. Pp. xlv, 472. \$4.50.

An essential source book, based on the collections of the oldest military society in America.

*A Guide to the Intellectual History of Europe.* By Frederick B. Artz. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1941. Pp. xix, 140. \$1.75.

A course of study based on the texts of important works, from the close of antiquity to mid-nineteenth century. Guides and questions.

*Current Practices in Institutional Teacher Placement.* By several authors. National Institutional

Teacher Placement Association, 1941. Pp. xi, 186.

A source book of theory and current practice largely related to secondary school positions.

*Men and Politics; an Autobiography.* By Louis Fischer. New York: Buell, Sloan & Pearce, 1941. Pp. vi, 672. \$3.50.

A sweeping chronicle of the uneasy post-1918 Europe, not unlike the volumes of Sheean, Lyons and Van Passen. Like these, it is often a diluted apologia. Excellent chapters on the Spanish war.

*A History of Medieval Austria.* By A. W. A. Leeper. London: Oxford University Press, 1941. Pp. vi, 420. \$6.00.

A useful, distinctive history up to the end of the Babenberg dynasty. R. W. Seton-Watson and C. A. Macartney have skilfully edited the text which was unfinished at the time of the author's death, a member of the British diplomatic service.

*From Luther to Hitler: The History of Fascist-Nazi Political Philosophy.* By William N. McGovern. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1941. Pp. xiv, 683. \$4.00.

A timely biography of ideas which show persistent continuity. Sometimes unconventional (the author may be best known as an explorer), the book can be used for a half-year course in philosophy or government.

*A Brief Survey of Medieval Europe.* By Carl Stephenson. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1941. Pp. xviii, 426. Illustrated. \$2.25.

A model of compact writing designed primarily for college history of civilization courses. History, as the author remarks, is no easier because it is called history of civilization.

*The Ukraine: a History.* By W. E. D. Allen. Cambridge: At the University Press, 1940; New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940. Pp. xvi, 404. Maps. \$4.50.

A well-balanced, readable account with three chapters on the post-1914 period. Recommended to fill a usual gap in most school libraries.

*American Political and Social History.* By Harold U. Faulkner. Second Edition. New York: F. S. Crofts and Company, 1941. Pp. xxv, 804. \$3.75.

This edition of a well-known text includes a thorough revision of the material since 1920, down to the opening months of Roosevelt's third administration. The social history has been used to interpret political action.

*The Course of Europe since Waterloo.* By Walter P. Hall and W. S. Davis. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1941. Pp. xviii, 901. Illustrated. \$4.00.

A balanced, comprehensive and readable college text. Well-organized for classroom use.

*Social Science Principles in the Light of Scientific Method.* By Joseph Mayer. Durham, N.C.: Duke University Press, 1941. Pp. xxii, 573. \$4.00.

Presents a challenging analysis of social science principles and particularly of classical and neo-classical economic doctrine in terms of modern science and sociology. The attempt to build a scientific discipline should be useful to teachers.

*Famous American Flyers.* By Chelsea Fraser. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1941. Pp. ix, 352. Illustrated. \$2.50.

Biographies for young readers arranged chronologically to present both the human and professional aspects of American flying heroes.

*The Wild Seventies.* By Denis T. Lynch. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1941. Pp. xv, 547. Illustrated. \$5.00.

A dramatic account largely of politics, by a veteran newspaperman, of a turbulent decade in American history which can hardly be used for inspirational purposes.

*Centralized vs. Decentralized Government in Relation to Democracy.* By Paul Studenski and Paul R. Mort. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941. Pp. vii, 69. \$75.

A review, arising from an interest in the control of education, of the arguments advanced in the literature of various nations.

*A Pageant of the Theatre.* By Edmund Fuller. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1941. Pp. xii, 270. \$2.50.

A modest effort to get at history by tracing the development of the drama.

*Mountain Medicine.* By Lawrence Cardwell. Caldwell, Idaho: The Caxton Printers Ltd., 1941. Pp. 232. Illustrated. \$3.00.

A story of an antidote to the nervous rush of city life. Home in the wilderness mountains of Arizona. Witty and zestful. Ranching.

*Benjamin Franklin.* By Enid Meadowcraft. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1941. Pp. 190. Illustrated. \$2.00.

A delightful account for young readers, combining drama with authenticity.

*America Is Worth Saving.* By Theodore Dreiser. New York: Modern Age Books, 1941. Pp. 292. \$2.50.

A great novelist examines the issue of war and peace. Isolationist with a vengeance.

*Main Currents in Modern Economic Life.* By Horace Taylor and Associates. Vols. I and II. New York: Harcourt Brace and Company, 1941. Pp. xi, 557; viii, 548. \$2.50 each.

Used in the course in Contemporary Civilization at Columbia.

*Recent America: A History of the United States Since 1900.* By Henry Bamford Parks. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1941. Pp. viii, 664. \$4.50.

A good survey of recent American history.

*Economic Analysis.* By Kenneth E. Boulding. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1941. Pp. xviii, 809. \$4.25.

A scholarly account of economic principles and analysis of present-day society.

*Man, the Nature Tamer: From Cave Man to American Citizen.* By Richard H. Nida and Fay Adams. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1941. Pp. vii, 423. Illustrated. \$1.64.

A new type textbook containing material that is simply presented.

*We Have a Future.* By Norman Thomas. Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1941. Pp. viii, 236. \$2.50.

The eminent Socialist, critical and challenging. "America's future will still be determined by the handling of internal forces rather than by the might of the most diabolical of foreign dictators."

*Theory and Processes of History.* By Frederick J. Teggart. Berkeley, Calif.: University of California Press, 1941. Pp. x, 323. \$3.50.

Two stimulating books, reprinted in one volume. *Theory* (1925) demonstrates difficulties which impede the utilization of historical materials; the *Processes* (1918) represents a mode of approach to study of these difficulties. The new history as a science of social change.

*Marcus Whitman, Crusader, Part III, 1843 to 1847.* Ed. by Archer B. Hulbert and D. P. Hulbert. Denver: Stewart Commission of Colorado College and Denver Public Library, 1941. Pp. xii, 275. Illustrated. \$5.00.



*Iowa: The Rivers of Her Valleys.* By William J. Peterson. Iowa City, Iowa: State Historical Society of Iowa, 1941. Pp. 381. \$3.00.

A scholarly study demonstrating the importance of Iowa's rivers.

*Anglo-American Union; Joseph Galloway's Plan to Preserve the British Empire, 1744-1788.* By Julian P. Boyd. Philadelphia, Pa.: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1941. Pp. x, 185. \$2.00.

Very suggestive analysis of an early proposal by an eminent conservative.

*International Executive Agreements.* By Wallace McClure. New York: Columbia University Press, 1941. Pp. xxii, 449. \$4.75.

A substantial study justifying constitutionally these agreements, usually accompanied by action of the legislature, as democratic procedure and a plea for the abolition of minority control over treaties in the Senate.

*Free Learning.* By Elizabeth Buchanan Cowley. Boston, Mass.: Bruce Humphries, Inc., 1941. Pp. 334. \$3.00.

A popular and stimulating account of the growth of democratic education, with emphasis on 1830-1840, and on four states.

*Our Interests as Consumers.* By Dorothy H. Jacobson. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1941. Pp. xiii, 338. Illustrated. \$1.48.

Excellent for a semester course or the high school library. A volume in the "American Way" series.

*Revolt of the Guns.* By Melvin Muldavin. Boston, Mass.: Christopher Publishing House, 1941. Pp. vii, 95. \$1.50.

An anti-war fantasy in play form.

*Community Contacts and Participation of Teachers.* By Florence Greenhoe. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Public Affairs, 1941. Pp. 91. Cloth \$2.00. Paper \$1.50.

An analysis of the community relationships of 9,122 public school teachers selected as a national sample.

*Hawk of Hawk Clan.* By Margaret A. Johansen. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1941. Pp. viii, 280. Illustrated. \$2.00.

An Indian boy's adventures during the Tejas confederacy.

*Elbow House.* By Julia Carson. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1941. Pp. 128. \$1.50.

A young girl's story.

*Western Star.* By Merritt P. Allen. New York: Longmans, Green & Company, 1941. Pp. 186. \$2.00.

Adventures of Jim Bridger, the second white man to see the Yellowstone region.

*The Spear of Ulysses.* By Alison B. Alessios. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1941. Pp. v, 213. Illustrated. \$1.75.

Story of a modern Greek boy on the island of Ithaca with authentic details.

*Singing Sisters.* By Laura Long. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1941. Pp. vii, 260. \$2.00.

Story of the mid-nineteenth century literary world based on the Carey sisters.

STATEMENT OF THE OWNERSHIP, MANAGEMENT, CIRCULATION, ETC., REQUIRED BY THE ACT OF CONGRESS OF MARCH 3, 1933, OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES, published monthly, October to May inclusive, at Philadelphia, Pa., and Menasha, Wis., for October 1, 1941.

State of Pennsylvania,  
County of Philadelphia,

Before me, a notary public in and for the State and County aforesaid, personally appeared William Martin, who, having been duly sworn according to law, deposes and says that he is the business manager of THE SOCIAL STUDIES, and that the following is, to the best of his knowledge and belief, a true statement of the ownership, management (and if a daily paper, the circulation), etc., of the aforesaid publication for the date shown in the above caption, required by the Act of August 24, 1912, as amended by the Act of March 3, 1933, embodied in section 537, Postal Laws and Regulations, printed on the reverse of this form, to wit:

1. That the names and addresses of the publisher, editor, managing editor, and business manager are:

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Managing Editor, ALBERT E. MCKINLEY, JR., Summit Ave., Fort Washington, Pa.

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WILLIAM MARTIN

Sworn to and subscribed before me this 1st day of September, 1941.  
GEO. W. TOWNSEND

(My commission expires February 25, 1945.)